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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1919, No. 4

A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

FOR THE GUIDANCE OF COMMITTEES ON EDUCATION IN THE STATE LEGISLATURES

Prepared under the direction of the Rural Division
United States Bureau of Education

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A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION.

I.—PURPOSE AND SCOPE.

The purpose of this manual is to place in the hands of the educational committees of the 44 State legislatures that convene in 1919 a suggestive program of educational legislation based upon the present emergency in our national life.

Each topic discussed falls, as a rule, under three distinct heads: (1) Historic background; (2) Summary of present organization or status; and (3) Reasonable standards of attainment.

THE AFTER-WAR PERIOD AND NATIONAL PROGRESS.

The legislatures in their present session will have to deal with many vitally important educational problems, some of them of long standing, but which now, in the light of war experience, have received new vital importance, and others resulting from the great issues of the war.

1. The first problem is that the schools shall be made to serve America as a nation more completely than now. This involves not only school education in its generally accepted understanding, but includes the whole problem of "Americanization."

There are in the United States nearly 6,000,000 persons over 10 years of age unable to read or write (700,000 of them young men who were liable to recent draft laws). Fifty-eight per cent of these illiterates are white persons; 28 per cent are native-born whites, and 30 per cent are foreign-born whites; 40 per cent of the rest are Negroes.

To educate all its people without exception is both the duty and the right of democracy. If these people have been deprived of educational opportunities in their youth, it is the duty of the Nation to extend this blessing to them now in their years of maturity; if these people have neglected their earlier opportunities, democracy has the right to demand that they correct the deficiency with public assistance at once.

2. The second problem is concerned with the health of the Nation. The war has disclosed many things in regard to physical health that we are loath to talk about. Medical examinations of the war draft at home and in the cantonments disclose (*a*) that under the first selective draft 730,756 men were rejected for physical reasons; (*b*) that on this basis about 30 per cent of the entire Nation are more or less physically unfit.

Most of these persons might have been saved for productive occupations, and for happy, wholesome lives, had their health and physical education been properly looked after while they were children in school.

3. The third problem is that of a higher level of educational culture for the masses of the people, whether in town or in country, in order that the Nation may be able to hold its well-earned leadership in the new international relationships which have come to us.

(*a*) This calls for a more thorough education for all people—young and old—based on national and local needs to challenge more fully than heretofore to highest national endeavor, by providing the large measure of leadership required in a great democracy.

(*b*) This also calls for a more systematic technical and practical preparation through the schools for the ordinary occupations, whether in agriculture, in the other industries, in trade, or in home-making.

Wholly aside from the native and alien adult illiterates, our public schools do not reach all the people of school age. On the basis of school population and enrollment *17.4 per cent of the people of school age are not enrolled in school.*

School terms are so short in many States and compulsory attendance so badly enforced that *the school life of the average person growing up in rural sections is only 4.5 school years of 140 days each. In urban communities conditions are better, but far from satisfactory.* Until these conditions are changed the great measure of intelligent leadership can not be forthcoming.

4. The final problem deals with (1) the readjustment of the millions of young men who have taken part in the mighty affairs of war and through it have acquired a new type of education while in their country's service, who will find it difficult to adjust themselves to old conditions (notably in the country and small towns), and (2) the women in these sections who, relatively speaking, have stood still educationally during this period.

HOW THE EMERGENCY MAY BE MET.

The first step would be to take an inventory or "survey" of the educational assets and liabilities in the State, and on the basis of this study formulate a program of educational legislation to extend over a period of years.

Such a study would disclose that one sovereign State at least spends less than six dollars per year per child for school education; that the United States spends more for chewing gum than for school books; more for automobiles than for elementary and secondary education; and more for the wages of an average chauffeur than for the salary of an average teacher; that tens of thousands of our native-born children are permitted to be taught American history in a foreign language—the Declaration of Independence and Lincoln's Gettysburg speech in German and other tongues, and that we permit men and women to work in masses where they seldom or never hear a word of English spoken.[1]

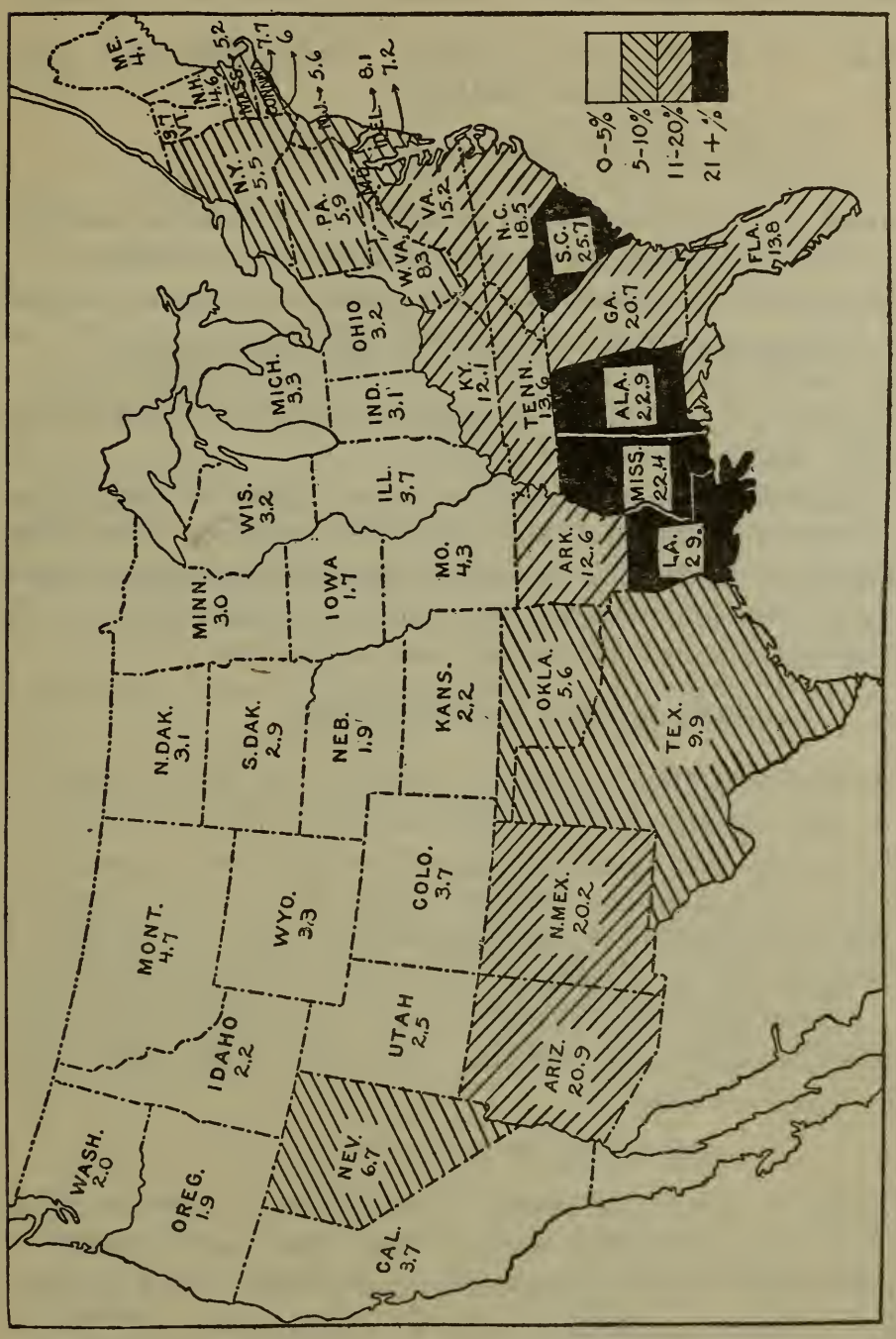
Such a legislative program would include at least the phases of the subjects enumerated below:

1. A businesslike State system of school organization and administration.

[1] See Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior, 1918, p. 24.

2. Establishment of an effective unit for greatest efficiency in local school administration.

3. Readjustment of elementary and secondary education on the basis of (a) education for health; (b) education for citizenship; (c) education for life occupation; and (d) education for leisure.



TOTAL ILLITERACY, 1910

This map contains the per cent of adult illiteracy—persons above 10 years of age—on the basis of total population, according to the census of 1910.

4. Reorganization of rural education to provide rural communities with adequate elementary and secondary schools of agricultural type.

5. A liberal system of school support to equalize educational opportunities among all the people.

6. Provision for suitable school grounds and buildings.

7. Preparation of an adequate staff of teachers.

8. Provision for a modern system of certificating teachers, based on a gradual increase in professional requirements.

9. Adequate provision for living salaries for these teachers; longer tenures and retirement pensions.

10. A liberal plan under which to provide textbooks in the schools.

II.—GENERAL ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION.

The new and enlarged conception of education is adding new importance to the chief educational office in the several States—i. e., the State Department of Education. The office, as originally created in the older States, was chiefly clerical and statistical, much like the now passing ideas of the functions of the old county superintendency. Almost any person chosen from the general electorate could fill the position to the satisfaction of the public.

But the demands of to-day require a new type of educational leadership, able to administer the manifold problems of modern school organization and administration, general education, school sanitation, industrial and vocational education, inter-relation of the public and higher schools, and educational legislation

STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

Modern educational development is toward the State board of education as the administrative head of the State's educational system. Thirty-seven States leave the entire direction of the public school system to such boards. Several States have no State boards; in several others, boards have been organized since the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act to administer the funds provided under this act; and in others again, the State boards of education administer only the higher educational institutions, as the university, agricultural college and normal schools.[1]

COMPOSITION OF THE BOARD.

Of the 37 States with State boards of education, 8 have ex-officio boards, which usually comprise the governor, the superintendent of public instruction and one or more other State officials such as secretary of state, attorney general, treasurer, auditor, etc. Of the 28 States with appointed State boards, 22 leave the appointment to the governor, subject, in most cases, to approval of the State senate; four States leave the selection of the boards to the State legislature; one State puts it to popular vote; and in one State it is left to the State superintendent of public instruction.

[1] For details, see Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 5.

APPOINTMENT BY GOVERNOR HAS GREAT MERIT.

1. It recognizes the executive head of the State as responsible to the people for the efficiency of every department of the public service, and tends to make the board responsible to the public.

2. It centers responsibility where it can be definitely located. When the legislature elects it is difficult to locate responsibility.

3. It provides against abuse and protects the board from undue political interference.

ELECTION BY POPULAR VOTE MORE DEMOCRATIC.

1. This method gives the people a direct voice in the selection of the men who direct the schools of the State.

2. Election of the board members by popular vote must in any case be on a nonpartisan ticket, and based solely on probity and ability.

SIZE OF BOARD, TERM OF OFFICE, AND MODE OF RETIRING MEMBERS.

The present tendency is toward a State board composed of from five to seven members holding office for a period of five to seven years and retiring one each year, thus perpetuating the personnel of the board. The smallest boards are usually composed of ex-officio members and may be regarded as representing the passing type. In 14 of the 37 States the boards range from eight to 12 members. A board of this size is not too large for working efficiency and is sufficiently large to create continuity of service provided it is organized to retire in small groups. In the case of all the ex-officio boards, the term of office is fixed by law and ranges from 2 to 4 years. In such boards the members usually retire in a body.[1]

POWERS AND DUTIES OF A WELL-ORGANIZED STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The State board should be primarily a lay board, representing the larger educational policies of the public, delegating the professional side of education and the administration of their general policies to their appointive executive official, the State superintendent of public instruction, or commissioner of education, and the heads of the several higher educational institutions. The board should be composed of from five to seven members appointed by the governor by and with the consent of the senate, the term of office to be five or seven years, one member to retire each year or two in each biennial period, thus perpetuating the board's continuance and making it permanent. Vacancies should be filled by the governor. The appointment should be for absolute worth and regardless of residence, occupation, party affiliation, religion or sex. The members

[1] For a complete study of this subject, see Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 5.

should serve without remuneration except for a reasonable per diem and actual traveling and other necessary expenses.

The general powers and duties of the State board should be as follows:

1. To have general oversight and control of the public-school system of the State.[1]

2. To select the State superintendent of public instruction to be executive official of the board.

3. To require uniform records and reports, in form to be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction, from all educational institutions supported by the State, and from all other organizations doing educational work receiving State accreditment and recognition.

4. To classify and standardize under the direction of the State superintendent, the public schools of the State.

5. To adopt rules and regulations for the sanitary inspection of schools and for the physical examination of school children; and, in conjunction with other State authorities, to see that the rules relating to school health, compulsory education, and child conservation are enforced.

6. To have general control of all such educational institutions as the schools for the deaf and the blind and industrial schools for boys and girls.

7. To act as a board of control for the State library and historical collections.

8. To transmit to the governor and the State legislature a periodic report covering all the activities of the State's higher educational institutions and the State department of public instruction in its relation to all public elementary and secondary schools and the above-mentioned higher educational institutions of the State.

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The average State department of education has developed more or less independently, paralleling the several State boards of education with functions centered in the administration of the elementary and secondary schools of the State. The executive head of this board—the State superintendent of public instruction—was formerly a political official in nearly all the States. Greater efficiency in school administration now demands a change. The superintendent is beginning to be recognized as the chief educational official in the

[1] In some of the States the proposed State boards of education would be organized to have control of all the schools, including the higher institutions. This would particularly be true of States seeing fit to enlarge the powers of the board now in control of higher education to include also the general oversight of the elementary and secondary schools.

State, whose task it is to organize and direct the educational forces within the State. The office requires the largest ability. It is indeed hard to conceive of a more important office or a more difficult position to fill well. At all times it calls for a person of great tact, good initiative, and much executive ability.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT: HOW CHOSEN.

In 31 States the superintendents are elected by popular vote; in 10 States they are appointed by the governor and in seven they are appointed by the State board of education.

OBJECTIONS TO SELECTING THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT BY POPULAR VOTE.

1. This method of selection limits the field from which to choose as the superintendent must be a citizen of the given State. In States where the superintendent is appointed by the State board of education or by the governor, this official may be selected from the country at large. Such freedom of selection is clearly in the interest of better service.

2. Where the State superintendent is selected by popular vote the salary is fixed by law. The salary can not be adjusted to fit the person desired; but a person must be found to fit the salary.

3. Where the State superintendent is elected by popular vote the term of office is short, two to four years, and reelection is uncertain. This lack of continuity in the service is a serious handicap to the superintendent, however capable.

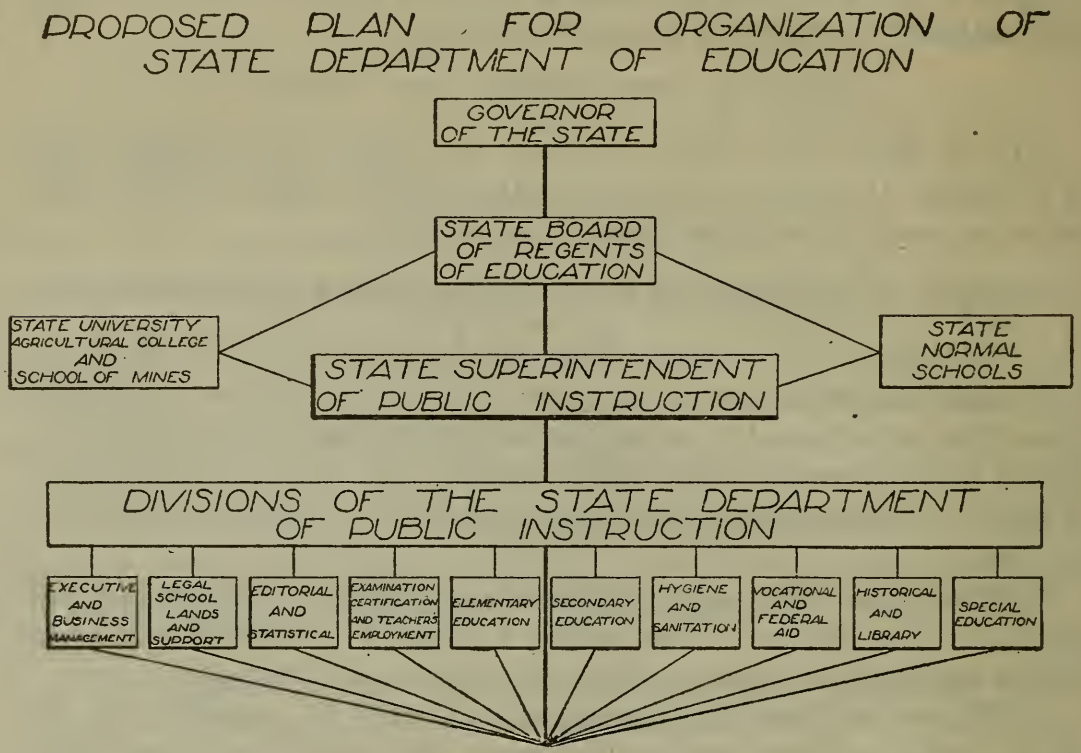
4. This method of appointment makes the office political and subjects it to all the fluctuations of party and factional politics.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT AS EXECUTIVE OF THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The modern trend is toward a capable State board of education organized on a nonpartisan basis. The best interests of the service would seem to require: (1) That this board be given the power to appoint the State superintendent; (2) that it be free to select him from the country at large; (3) that it have authority to pay whatever salary is necessary to get the best man for the position; (4) that it make the appointee a member of the board and its chief executive officer; and (5) that it keep him in the service as long as he proves effective and supply him with an ample staff of assistants to do his work.

With the State board of education organized on this basis the position of State superintendent stands first in responsibility and in opportunity to render executive service. As executive official he administers the various divisions of the State department of education and also represents the State board as its professional repre-

sentative in all the higher educational institutions of the State. This organization is illustrated in the following graphic illustration of the proposed reorganization of a State board of education:


PROPOSED PLAN FOR ORGANIZATION OF STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
GOVERNOR OF THE STATE
STATE BOARD OF REGENTS OF EDUCATION
STATE UNIVERSITY AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE AND SCHOOL OF MINES
STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS
DIVISIONS OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
EXECUTIVE AND BUSINESS MANAGEMENT
LEGAL SCHOOL LANDS AND SUPPORT
EDITORIAL AND STATISTICAL
EXAMINATION CERTIFICATION AND TEACHERS EMPLOYMENT
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
SECONDARY EDUCATION
HYGIENE AND SANITATION
VOCATIONAL AND FEDERAL AID
HISTORICAL AND LIBRARY
SPECIAL EDUCATION

This is a graphic representation of a proposed plan for the organization of a State department of education contained in the report of the State-wide educational survey recently completed by the Bureau of Education for the Legislature of South Dakota.

The reorganized State department of education should be comprehensively planned on lines of approved business principles. The most important business in the average State is education. If the State is to get full returns on its educational investment the methods, means and ways outlined must be of the most approved known to experts in school administration. There should be ample provision made for as many subdivisions of the department as may be necessary to administer the office to the best interest of the public.

This important office should be based on the following powers and duties:

1. The State superintendent should be the executive official of the State board of education and executive head of the State department of education and should enforce all the rules and regulations made in conformity to law by the State board for the public elementary and secondary schools.

2. He should have supervision of all the different divisions of the State department of education and should be held responsible by the State board for the proper administration of the duties of each such division.

3. He should, in cooperation with the heads of the State's institutions for training teachers, and in conformity with law, prescribe courses of study for these training schools, standards for the certification of teachers, and methods for the validation of teaching credentials from other States.

4. He should, as the professional representative of the State board of education, cooperate with the presidents and faculties of the higher educational institutions of the State.

5. He should have such other powers as under law belong to the office of State superintendent of education.

UNITS OF ORGANIZATION FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOLS.

Nearly every phase of school organization is bound up in some way with the geographical unit utilized as the basis of school maintenance, supervision, and general administration. If the unit of organization is very small it becomes impracticable for school taxation and supervision; if too large, its supervision is difficult and generally ineffective. The growth of school education in entire sections of the country has been retarded because of bad school organization; while other sections, less fortunately situated in other ways, have been able to make exceptional progress in school reorganization because favored by modern laws on this subject.

Three distinct units of organization are in use at the present time in the United States—the district, the township, and the county. In addition, there are several instances of mixed systems in which the management rests both on the district and on the township, or county.

Experience has, however, taught that *for the greatest administrative efficiency in education, the unit of administration should conform geographically to the unit used for civil administration.*

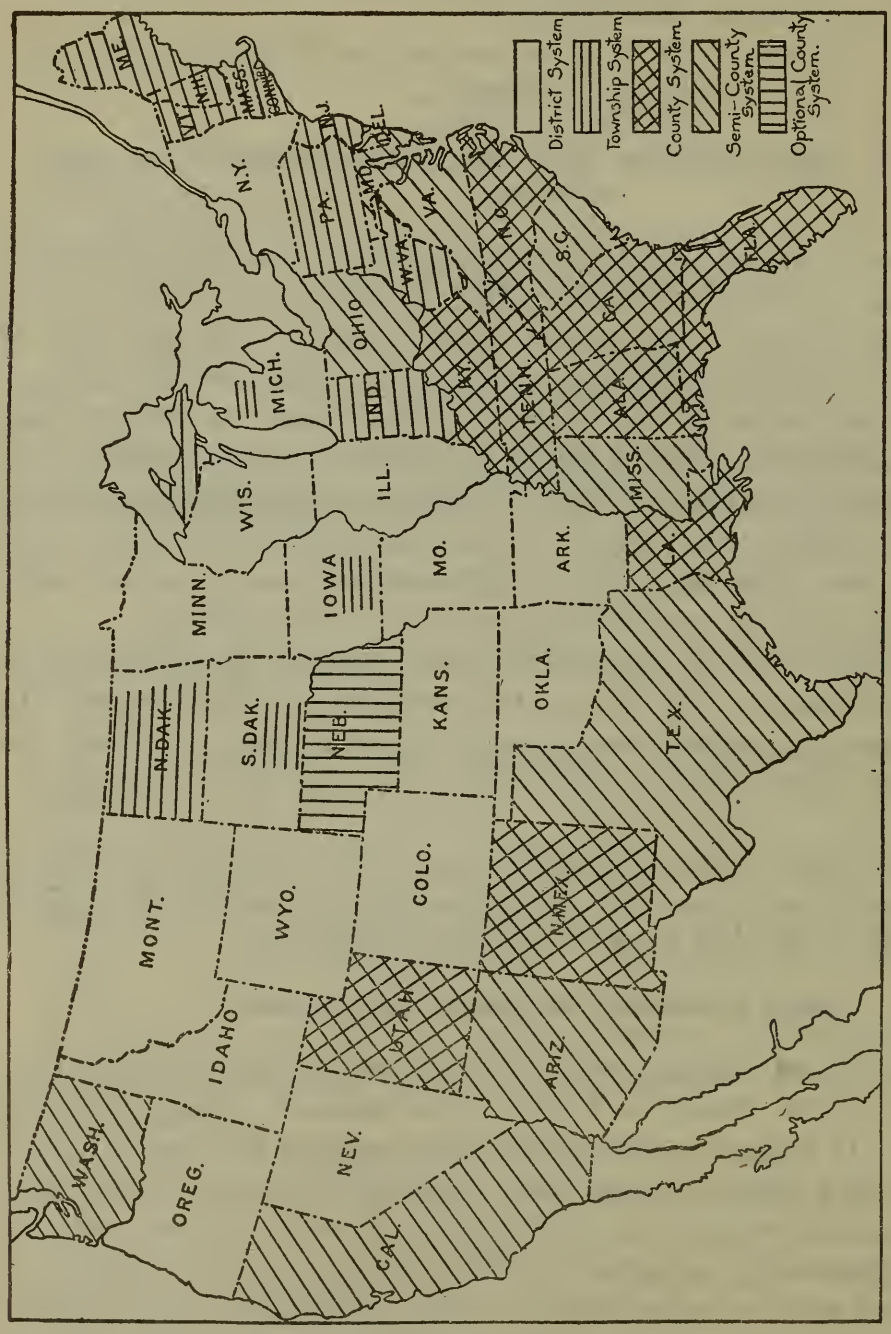
BRIEF STATEMENT OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

The small local district was the original pioneer organization, particularly in the North and West, and generally preceded school legislation. It began as a necessity on the edge of the New England wilderness long ago and was later continued for much the same reasons in the westward march into the interior of the continent. The town (township) system for school purposes was originated in New England and prevailed from the very beginning in all organized towns. County organization originated in the South. Here plantation life prevailed, agricultural areas were large, with a widely scattered population and little village life. This called for a larger unit of organization for civil purposes which was supplied by the

old English county. The latter also began the unit for school purposes. The following map shows graphically the different units of school organization in use throughout the country.

THE DISTRICT UNIT.

The term district unit is used to mean a small geographical area served by a single school and occasionally two or more schools,



DIFFERENT UNITS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

This map shows graphically the different units of school organization in use throughout the country. The county unit, in one form or another, is making steady headway.

under one board of education. This board has general charge of the local school, including care of the school premises, choice of teachers, the right to fix the teachers' salaries, and establishment of the policy which shall govern the work of the schools. The board

is amenable to the annual school meeting which elects its members, votes the taxation—except States without local taxation—determines the length of school year, etc.

The small district, which has been considered more democratic than the other forms, is beginning to decline in every section of the country for the obvious reason that it was organized as a pioneer system at a time when it was the only feasible plan. But with the passing of pioneer conditions and the development of modern industrial life, a larger and more centrally controlled system of organization seems desirable.

THE TOWN OR TOWNSHIP UNIT.

People have begun to realize that the small district has outlived its period of real usefulness and ought to be supplanted by a more effective unit of organization. In New England the more compact township organization has already driven out these local districts. The same is true in Indiana and other States in the Middle West. There is a recent movement on to go one step farther and reorganize both district and township States on the larger and more effective county unit of organization. *So far as New England is concerned, the town system is unquestionably the best unit of organization for management of the schools in that section of the country because of the fact that the town is also used as the unit in civil administration. Elsewhere in the country a still larger unit would seem advisable.*

THE COUNTY UNIT.

Nineteen States are organized wholly or in part on the county unit basis for school administration. Of these Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah may be classed as of the pure county type; that is, in which practically the entire management of the schools rests with the county board of education. Arizona, California, Delaware, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and Washington belong to the mixed or semicounty type in which the authority is divided between the county board and either township or local district boards. Of the above States, Kentucky, Tennessee, Utah, and New Mexico have recently changed from the district unit of organization to the county unit, and Ohio and Texas from the district unit to the semicounty organization. The most recent State to reorganize on the new plan is New Mexico. Of this reorganization, State Superintendent Johnathan H. Wagner says, in part:

> We now have the county board of education which has charge of all the schools in the county. This is proving a wise provision, as it centralizes the administration of the county schools. It has already stopped all financial leaks and better qualified teachers are being employed. It is a great deal more economical than the old system, as all counties are required to work under the budget system.

It is generally conceded that the satisfactory progress in consolidating schools, in the establishment of rural high schools, and the introduction of industrial work, now going on in certain States, could never have been accomplished to such a degree as it has been, were it not for county organization.

AN EFFECTIVE COUNTY ORGANIZATION.

The county unit, to be thoroughly effective, must make provision for *a well centralized business administration without depriving the people of their local initiative in school matters.* The county board and the county superintendent would administer the general school affairs and equalize educational advantages to all the people of the county while *each school community would be represented by one subdirector appointed by the county board or, if desired, elected at the annual school meeting;* while the school funds of the county would be expended by the county board of education for the general maintenance of all the schools. *But the local school community should invariably retain the right to levy taxes and issue bonds for extraordinary school purposes,* such as acquiring additional land sites, erecting new buildings, etc. This is a guaranty of local autonomy; for where the right of taxation is vested, there is the real power.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF A WELL-ORGANIZED COUNTY SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

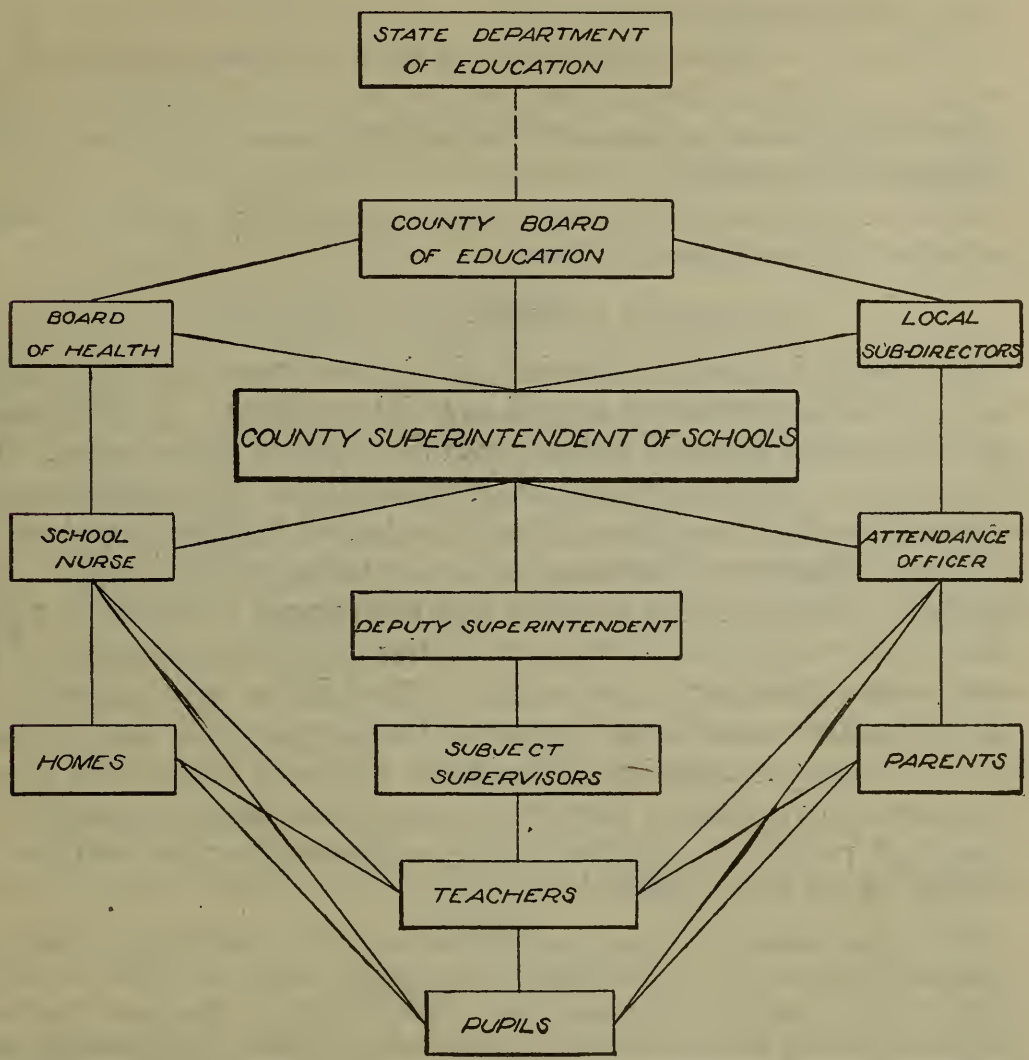
This paragraph is intended for those States only which are organized on the county unit for general school supervision and which are making use of the county as the administrative unit in ordinary civic matters. It is the conviction of progressive educators that the average State can best attain its highest efficiency and more effectively influence school education by reorganizing its schools on a practical county unit basis. This can be done effectively and economically without in any way interfering with real democracy in education. This type of organization contemplates the establishment of (1) a county board of education to have the management of the educational affairs in each county; and (2) the election by the county board of education of a professional county superintendent to be the chief educational official of the county and the executive officer of the board.

THE COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION.

This board, in organization and function, should be a prototype of the State board of education explained above. It should be composed of five or seven citizens selected from the county at large, known for their ability and probity, and elected for a five or seven year term from the county at large or from electoral districts on a nonpartisan ticket. One term should expire each year. Vacancies on the board should be filled by the county board of commissioners

or equivalent administrative organization for the unexpired term. The board should receive all necessary traveling expenses and a reasonable per diem to compensate them for their time. The board should be strictly legislative, leaving the executive duties to the county superintendent.

PROPOSED PLAN FOR ORGANIZATION OF COUNTY SYSTEM OF EDUCATION



This is a graphic representation of a county plan of organization contained in the report of the Statewide educational survey recently completed by the United States Bureau of Education for the Legislature of South Dakota.

The chief powers and duties of the county board of education may be summarized as follows:

1. To enforce the laws relative to education and the rules and regulations of the State board of education within their respective counties.

2. To elect the county superintendent and all necessary supervisors and office assistants; also to elect one director for each school

community within their jurisdiction, who shall be the custodian of local school property and represent local needs before the county boards.

3. To have direct charge of all county schools outside of incorporated city districts, including the closing of unnecessary schools, building new schools, consolidating schools, and conveying children to school, and organizaing rural high schools.

4. To elect all teachers needed in the county schools, on nomination of the county superintendent.

5. To levy a uniform school tax on all the taxable property of the county under legal limitations; and to expend the funds thus procured to equalize educational advantages among all the school children of the county.

6. To exercise all other powers and duties not enumerated above, but which are prescribed by law.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS.

The rapid changes in American life have thrust new responsibilities on the superintendent as well as on his teachers. He still retains the clerical and financial duties given the office at its founding. The instructional work at the schools has grown in importance and required much of his time. The selection of textbooks and school equipment, however, is left more and more to the superintendent. The holding of institutes for teachers and the annual meetings of school officers are recently added responsibilities unknown in the day of the early superintendency. To perform these duties satisfactorily, the superintendent must be an expert in the instructional and administrative phases of teaching. The office demands first of all a good organizer; it requires a person of exceptional business ability; he must be a person of unlimited energy and withal a man who has the courage of his convictions.

Thirty-nine States have county superintendents. The New England States are organized in charge of town (township) or town-district superintendents, while New York, Virginia, and Nevada have district superintendents. The term of office in 14 States is four years; in 1, three years; and in 23, two years. In 29 of these States the county superintendent is elected by the people usually in the same manner as other county officers. In the rest of the States they are appointed by a county board of education or its equivalent, and in the case of Delaware, by the governor; and in New Jersey, by the State commissioner of education.

The most important problem is to remove the office entirely from party politics and place the superintendency on a professional basis with a permanent tenure and sufficient salary to attract the best persons in the profession to this exceptionally important office.

In electing the county superintendent, the county board of education should not be restricted to the county or even the State. The best candidate from anywhere in the country should be selected.

The board should not be restricted by a candidate's religion, party affiliations, or sex. The term of office should be long, though

at first probationary. The salary should be not less than $2,500 per annum in all well-established counties.

The chief powers and duties of the county superintendent should be—

1. To act as executive officer of the county board of education and to administer, under its direction, the educational policies determined upon by the board.
2. To act as chief educational officer of the county, in which capacity he should represent the county board of education.
3. To see that compulsory-attendance laws are enforced and child-welfare laws obeyed.
4. To nominate for appointment by the county board of education all deputy superintendents or professional supervisors required by law.
5. To supervise the class-room practice of all county schools, either in person or through his assistants.
6. To carry out all policies of the county board and have charge, under direction of the board, of all schools, including continuation-school activities, night schools, part-time schools, short courses, and all other types of education undertaken for the promotion of vocational education and other education within the county.
7. To have charge of health education in the county, including health inspection made in conjunction with the county medical authorities, and to direct the work of the school nurse or nurses, if such be appointed.
8. To keep full records of all educational activities within the county and to make reports from time to time to the county board of education and to the State superintendent of education.
9. To perform such other duties as by law belong to the office.

III.—SCHOOL POPULATION, ENROLLMENT, AND ATTENDANCE.

SCHOOL CENSUS.

By school population is meant the ages between which the public schools are legally open to the education of children. A glance at the accompanying table discloses considerable variance in the legal ages in several States. The widest range of ages is from 4 to 20 years (Wisconsin and Oregon), and 5 to 21 years in 7 States (Maine, Iowa, Nebraska, New Mexico, Washington, and Mississippi). The narrowest range is from 5 to 16 years (New Hampshire and Massachusetts). In 17 of the 43 States where a census enumeration is made, the range of ages is from 6 to 21 years. No school census is taken in New Jersey, Delaware, South Carolina, and California. A grouping of the range of ages, with the number of States in each group, is given on the next page.

Age	Number of States.
7 to 20	1
7 to 21	1
7 to 17	1
4 to 16	1
6 to 16	2
5 to 20	2
4 to 20	2
6 to 20	2
5 to 18	2
5 to 16	2
6 to 18	5
5 to 21	7
6 to 21	16
Total	44

PROPOSED CHANGES.

A school census should be taken annually in every State. The best time to make this enumeration is at the beginning of the school year. It should be made by the county board of enumeration or similar board. From 5 to 18 years is the best range of ages to include in the school census, because this is the natural school age of the normal child.

Because there is no uniformity in range of ages and no enumeration in four States, the only available statistics of school population is an estimate calculated from reports made to the United States Census Bureau. The ages included in the census enumeration bear little relation to the ages of children actually in school. The normal child begins school at 5 or 6 years of age and completes the high school at 17 or 18. Very few children are in the elementary or secondary schools above the age of 18.

COMPULSORY AGES.

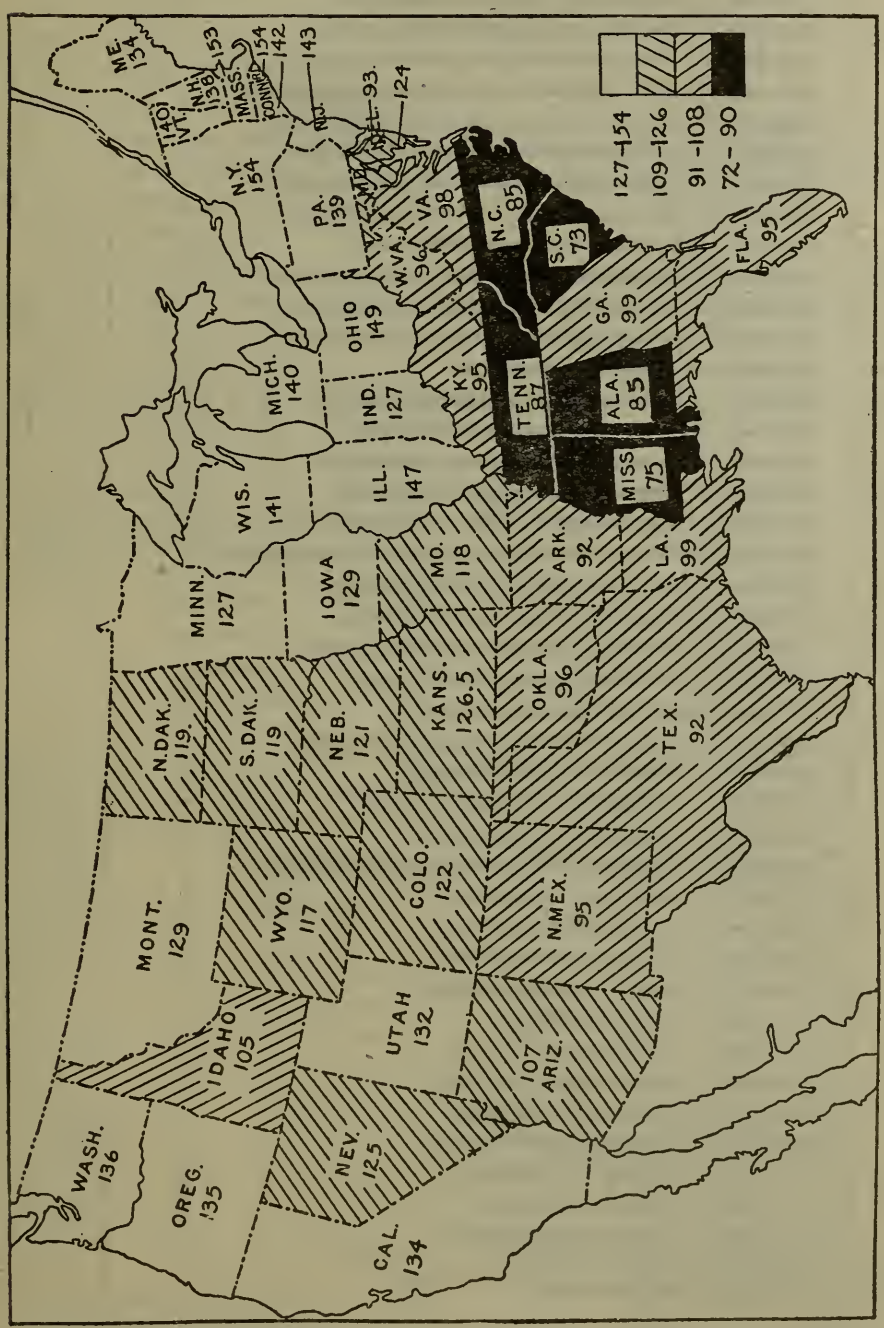
Every State has an age limit for compulsory attendance. The lowest range of ages is from 8 to 12 years (Virginia and North Carolina). The highest is from 8 to 18 years (Idaho). In 10 States the range is between 8 and 16 and in 10 States between 7 and 14. The range of ages and the number of States in each group follow:

Ages.	Number of States.
7 to 12	1
8 to 18	1
9 to 15	1
8 to 12	2
7 to 16	4
8 to 15	5
7 to 15	5
8 to 14	9
8 to 16	10
7 to 14	10
Total	48

FEASIBLE CHANGES.

The compulsory period varies from 12 weeks to a full school year. *The age limit for compulsory education should provide at least for the completion of the elementary school course. This would mean an actual attendance of 7 or 8 years.* To complete this course would mean attendance for the full time that school is in session

To complete an elementary school course is none too much education for citizens of a democracy. It was James Madison who said, "A popular government without public education is but the prelude of a farce or a tragedy, or both."

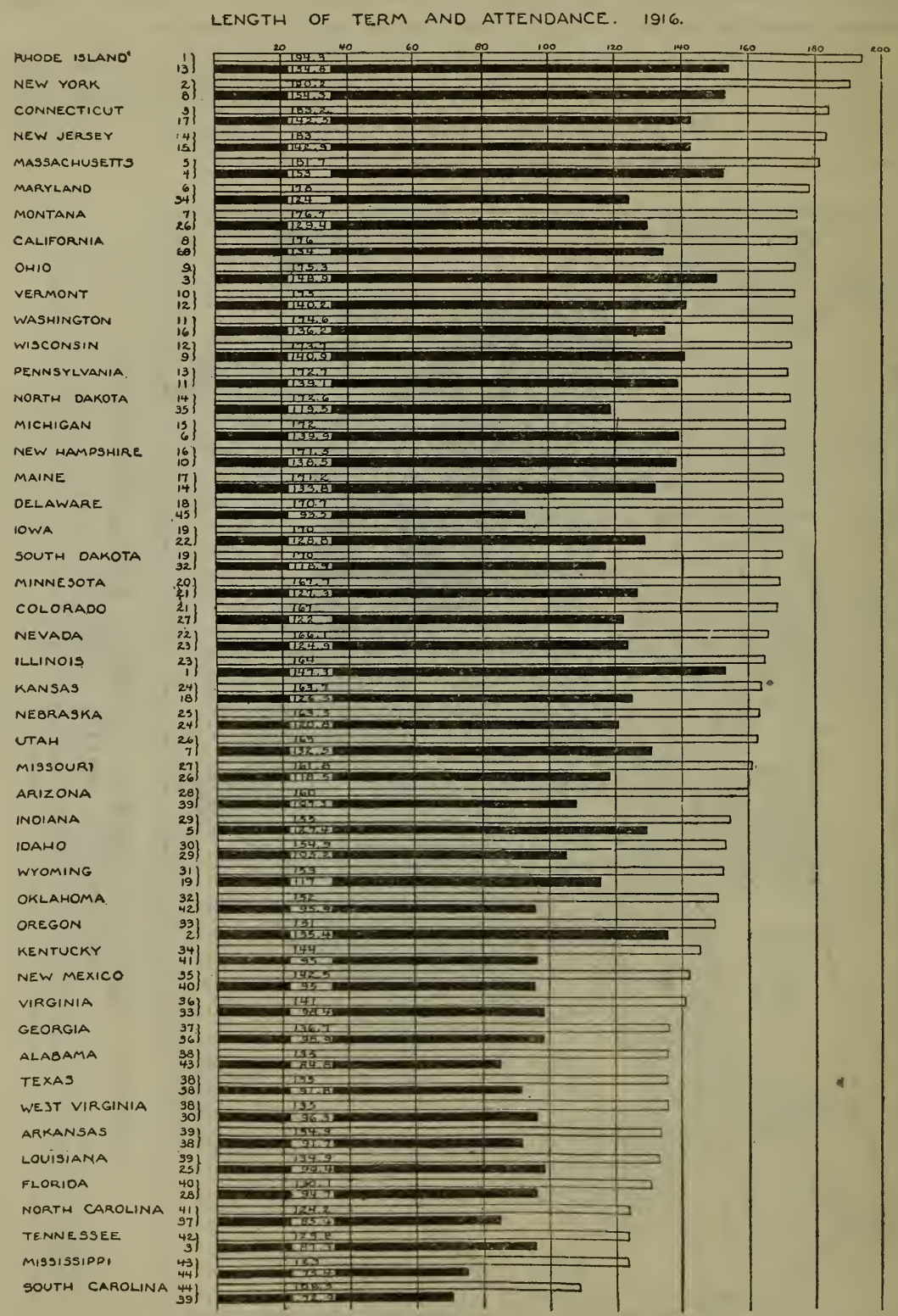


AVERAGE DAYS ATTENDED by EACH PUPIL ENROLLED. (NEAREST UNIT) 1915-16.

The average number of days attended by each child ranges from 73 days in the lowest state to 154 days in the highest. This altogether too short term falls far short of the ideal of the all-year school.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND LENGTH OF TERM.

The accompanying table and graph show the average number of days that public schools were kept open, the average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled, and the average per cent of



The light line indicates the total number of days the schools were in operation. The heavy line indicates the average attendance.

attendance in each State for the school year 1915–16. The average length of school year varied from 194.3 days in Rhode Island to 108.5 days in South Carolina. *A comparison of average days of attendance for all pupils enrolled, with the average length of term, indicates that the entire school year was not utilized. The per cent varied from 89.9 in Illinois to 54.8 in Delaware.*

This difference between length of term and days attended may be seen at a glance from the several surveys conducted by the Bureau of Education:

Arizona (report for 1915–16):

Throughout the State there is a difference of from two and one-half to four months between the number of days school is taught and the actual number of days attended by the average pupil enrolled.

Colorado (figures for 1915–16):

The average for rural schools as given in the county superintendents' report is 148 days, or about 7 months. For the State as a whole the average number of days attended by the children in rural schools is 106, to practically 5 school months.

Wyoming (figures for 1914–15):

A similar irregularity and consequent injustice is shown in the average number of days attended. Even in a county in which the minimum length of term is 6 months, or 120 days, the average number of days actually attended by each child enrolled is but 89. Schools in this county are evidently not holding pupils in school during the full term, even when the term is a short one, and consequently it is evident that the attendance law is not being enforced.

TABLE 1.—*Average number of days public schools were kept open, average number of days of attendance by each pupil enrolled, and average per cent of attendance in each State in 1915–16.**

Location.	Days schools were open.		Days attended.		
	Rank.	Number.	Average.	Per cent.	Rank.
Alabama	38	135.0	84.8	62.9	43
Arizona	28	160.0	107.3	67.1	39
Arkansas	39	134.9	91.7	[1] 68.0	38
California	8	176.0	134.0	76.2	20
Colorado	21	167.0	122.0	73.1	27
Connecticut	3	183.2	142.5	77.8	17
Delaware	18	170.7	93.5	54.8	45
Florida	40	130.1	94.7	72.8	28
Georgia	37	136.7	98.9	69.0	36
Idaho	30	[1] 154.9	105.2	[1] 72.0	29
Illinois	23	164.0	147.3	89.8	1
Indiana	29	155.0	127.4	82.2	5
Iowa	19	170.0	128.8	75.8	22
Kansas	24	163.7	126.5	77.3	18
Kentucky	34	144.0	95.0	65.9	41
Louisiana	39	134.9	99.4	73.7	25
Maine	17	171.2	133.8	78.2	14
Maryland	6	178.0	124.0	69.7	34
Massachusetts	5	181.7	153.0	84.2	4
Michigan	15	[1] 172.0	139.9	81.3	6
Minnesota	20	167.7	127.3	75.9	21
Mississippi	43	[2] 123.0	[2] 75.4	[2] 61.3	44
Missouri	27	161.8	118.5	73.2	26
Montana	7	176.7	129.4	73.2	26
Nebraska	25	163.5	[3] 120.8	73.9	24
Nevada	22	166.1	124.9	75.2	23
New Hampshire	16	171.5	138.5	80.8	10
New Jersey	4	[1] 183.0	142.9	78.1	15

* From statistics, U. S. Bureau of Education. [1] Statistics, 1914–15. [2] Statistics, 1913–14. [3] Estimated.

TABLE 1.—*Average number of days public schools were kept open, average number of days of attendance by each pupil enrolled, and average per cent of attendance in each State in 1915–16*—Continued.

Location.	Days schools were open.		Days attended.		
	Rank.	Number.	Average.	Per cent.	Rank.
New Mexico	35	142.5	95.0	66.7	40
New York	2	190.2	154.3	81.1	8
North Carolina	41	124.2	85.4	68.7	37
North Dakota	14	[1] 172.6	119.5	69.2	35
Ohio	9	175.3	148.9	84.9	3
Oklahoma	32	152.0	95.9	63.1	42
Oregon	33	151.0	135.4	89.7	2
Pennsylvania	13	172.7	139.1	80.6	11
Rhode Island	1	194.3	154.8	79.7	13
South Carolina	44	108.5	72.9	67.1	39
South Dakota	19	170.0	118.9	70.0	32
Tennessee	42	123.8	87.3	70.5	31
Texas	38	135.0	91.8	68.0	38
Utah	26	163.0	132.5	81.2	7
Vermont	10	175.0	140.2	80.1	12
Virginia	36	141.0	98.4	69.8	33
Washington	11	174.6	136.2	78.0	16
West Virginia	38	135.0	96.3	71.3	30
Wisconsin	12	173.7	140.9	81.0	9
Wyoming	31	153.0	117.0	76.5	19
United States (continental)	.....	160.3	120.9	75.5	.....

[1] Statistics, 1914–15.

PROPOSED CHANGES.

The schools should be organized on the all-year basis. The term and teaching contract should begin January 1 of each year. The school work should be planned in such a way that, while the teacher is employed for the whole year, actual class work should be regulated by the labor needs in the community.

The all-year school prevents the loss of school efficiency because of a long summer vacation; it minimizes the problem of idleness and vagrancy among city children; it enables children to finish school at an earlier age; and provides a plan whereby, by means of home projects, the field and garden may become vital laboratories for agricultural instruction.

CHILDREN IN AND OUT OF SCHOOL.

The public school is installed and maintained by the State. In measuring its efficiency, the following questions are vital: First, *How many children are to be educated?* Second, *How many are in the public schools?* Third, *How many are in private schools?* Fourth, *How many are not attending either public or private schools?*

The accompanying table and graph give the census, the number and per cent of children in public schools, private schools, and not in any school. The term census, as given in the table, includes children between the ages of 5 and 18 years—the age adopted by the United States Bureau of Education in compiling its statistics.

TABLE 2.—*Children in and out of school.*

(U. S. Bureau of Education, statistics, 1915–16.)

Location.	Rank.	Census.	Number in public schools.	Per cent in public schools.	Number in private schools.	Per cent in private schools.	Number not in school.	Per cent not in school.
Alabama	43	740,603	514,601	69.1	17,187	2.5	208,815	28.4
Arizona	14	62,608	51,077	81.7	3,367	5.4	8,164	12.9
Arkansas	24	546,099	447,726	82.0	6,133	1.1	92,240	16.9
California	.....	[1] 571,274	539,688	.....	33,000	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	20	225,122	184,471	82.0	7,000	3.1	33,651	14.9
Connecticut	.....	[1] 285,483	234,609	82.1	52,293	.....	1,419	.....
Delaware	2	52,769	45,327	85.9	5,000	9.5	2,442	4.6
Florida	28	256,522	198,365	77.2	8,500	3.3	49,657	19.5
Georgia	41	912,227	667,635	73.2	10,000	1.1	234,592	25.7
Idaho	15	113,104	95,772	84.7	2,500	2.2	14,832	13.1
Illinois	19	1,514,070	1,084,640	71.8	213,760	14.0	215,730	14.2
Indiana	18	703,641	564,252	80.2	40,000	5.7	99,389	14.1
Iowa	1	583,278	525,579	90.0	42,000	7.2	15,699	2.8
Kansas	17	483,731	402,860	83.3	16,051	3.3	64,820	13.4
Kentucky	26	699,376	537,008	76.8	33,352	4.8	129,016	18.4
Louisiana	45	572,883	320,400	55.7	38,159	6.7	214,412	37.6
Maine	3	176,823	149,149	84.3	17,207	9.8	10,467	5.9
Maryland	7	357,464	243,077	68.0	30,000	23.6	84,387	8.4
Massachusetts	12	830,115	604,023	72.8	122,000	14.7	104,092	12.5
Michigan	6	751,494	620,861	82.8	72,982	9.5	57,651	7.7
Minnesota	21	617,316	481,583	78.0	38,000	6.2	97,733	15.8
Mississippi	31	635,270	492,756	77.6	7,500	1.1	135,014	21.3
Missouri	10	890,190	721,752	81.0	65,000	7.4	103,438	11.6
Montana	.....	[1] 98,883	102,768	.....	7,000	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	11	345,051	292,725	84.8	12,000	3.5	40,326	11.7
Nevada	35	17,515	13,358	76.3	309	1.7	3,848	22.0
New Hampshire	9	98,192	67,461	68.7	21,689	22.0	9,042	9.3
New Jersey	23	707,229	540,287	76.4	48,000	6.8	118,942	16.8
New Mexico	44	118,941	77,062	64.8	5,589	4.7	36,290	30.5
New York	27	2,336,165	1,625,777	69.5	278,000	11.8	432,388	18.7
North Carolina	13	772,240	640,246	84.0	25,000	3.2	87,994	12.8
North Dakota	40	208,011	151,647	73.0	3,500	1.6	52,864	25.4
Ohio	22	1,217,544	905,071	74.3	120,000	9.8	192,474	15.9
Oklahoma	32	675,598	515,493	76.4	14,915	2.2	145,190	21.4
Oregon	25	183,445	142,365	77.6	7,794	4.2	33,286	18.2
Pennsylvania	30	2,123,686	1,504,794	70.8	180,000	8.5	438,892	20.7
Rhode Island	34	142,152	89,879	63.2	21,646	15.2	30,627	21.6
South Carolina	33	542,583	415,766	76.6	10,000	1.9	116,817	21.5
South Dakota	42	193,417	134,136	69.5	4,500	2.2	54,771	28.3
Tennessee	4	687,087	610,235	88.8	27,000	4.0	49,752	7.2
Texas	39	1,388,226	1,017,083	73.0	28,000	2.0	343,143	25.0
Utah	8	126,058	108,359	86.0	7,000	5.4	10,699	8.6
Vermont	16	84,669	65,380	77.3	8,000	9.4	11,289	13.3
Virginia	38	665,716	486,134	73.1	17,568	2.6	172,014	24.3
Washington	37	336,148	245,419	73.0	10,261	3.0	80,468	24.0
West Virginia	29	401,119	313,873	78.2	4,839	1.3	82,407	20.5
Wisconsin	36	686,346	458,102	66.8	70,000	10.2	158,244	23.0
Wyoming	5	37,061	32,630	88.0	1,600	4.4	2,831	7.6
United States	.....	26,846,976	20,351,687	75.8	1,820,210	6.8	4,675,079	17.4

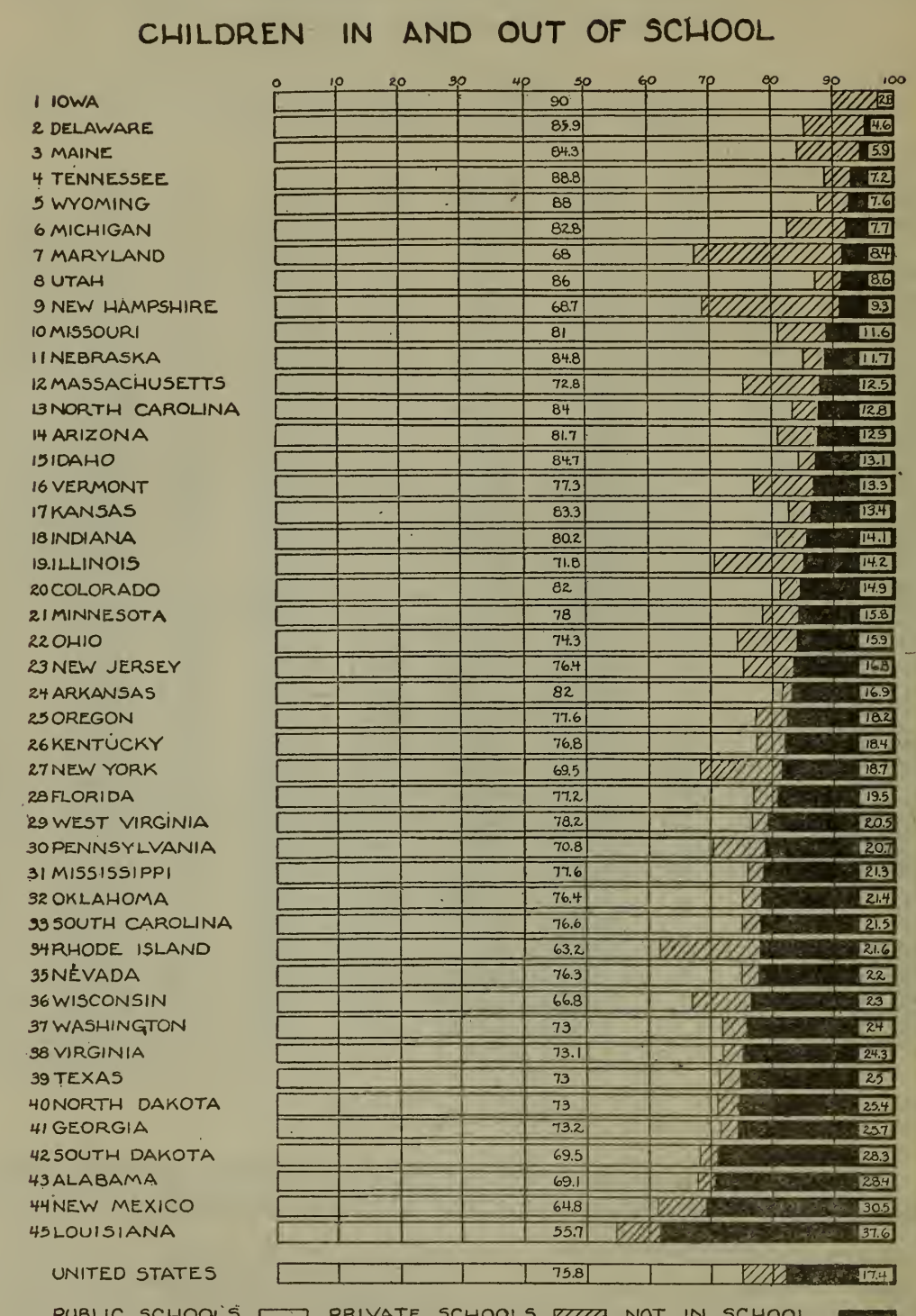
[1] Enrollment in excess of census.

The following is quoted from Bureau of Education surveys relative to the compulsory attendance laws and the enforcement of the same:

Arizona, statistics for 1915–16:

The compulsory age in Arizona is 6 to 18 years, unless the child has completed the elementary school before that age, when he may leave at 14. Eleven county superintendents report that it is well enforced; 3 reported that it is partially enforced. A comparison of the number of days attended to the days taught does not verify the statement of the 11. The large enrollment compared to average daily attendance also indicates laxity in the enforcement of the true intent of the law.

Colorado, statistics for 1914–15:

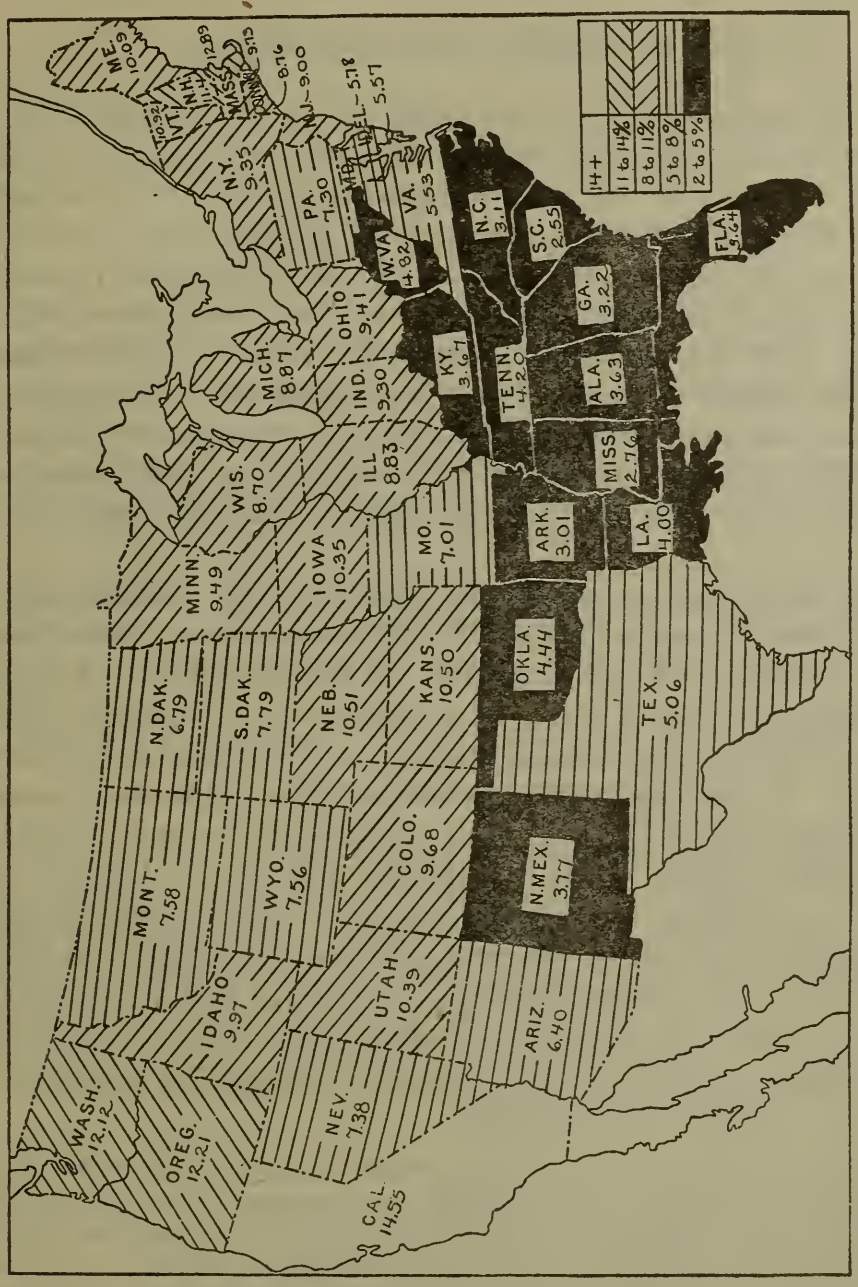

CHILDREN IN AND OUT OF SCHOOL
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
1 IOWA 90 2.8
2 DELAWARE 85.9 4.6
3 MAINE 84.3 5.9
4 TENNESSEE 88.8 7.2
5 WYOMING 88 7.6
6 MICHIGAN 82.8 7.7
7 MARYLAND 68 8.4
8 UTAH 86 8.6
9 NEW HAMPSHIRE 68.7 9.3
10 MISSOURI 81 11.6
11 NEBRASKA 84.8 11.7
12 MASSACHUSETTS 72.8 12.5
13 NORTH CAROLINA 84 12.8
14 ARIZONA 81.7 12.9
15 IDAHO 84.7 13.1
16 VERMONT 77.3 13.3
17 KANSAS 83.3 13.4
18 INDIANA 80.2 14.1
19 ILLINOIS 71.8 14.2
20 COLORADO 82 14.9
21 MINNESOTA 78 15.8
22 OHIO 74.3 15.9
23 NEW JERSEY 76.4 16.8
24 ARKANSAS 82 16.9
25 OREGON 77.6 18.2
26 KENTUCKY 76.8 18.4
27 NEW YORK 69.5 18.7
28 FLORIDA 77.2 19.5
29 WEST VIRGINIA 78.2 20.5
30 PENNSYLVANIA 70.8 20.7
31 MISSISSIPPI 77.6 21.3
32 OKLAHOMA 76.4 21.4
33 SOUTH CAROLINA 76.6 21.5
34 RHODE ISLAND 63.2 21.6
35 NEVADA 76.3 22
36 WISCONSIN 66.8 23
37 WASHINGTON 73 24
38 VIRGINIA 73.1 24.3
39 TEXAS 73 25
40 NORTH DAKOTA 73 25.4
41 GEORGIA 73.2 25.7
42 SOUTH DAKOTA 69.5 28.3
43 ALABAMA 69.1 28.4
44 NEW MEXICO 64.8 30.5
45 LOUISIANA 55.7 37.6
UNITED STATES 75.8 17.4
PUBLIC SCHOOLS PRIVATE SCHOOLS NOT IN SCHOOL
PER CENT OF SCHOOL POPULATION ENROLLED IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND NOT IN ANY SCHOOL IN 1915–16.
CALIFORNIA, CONNECTICUT, MONTANA REPORT ENROLLMENT IN EXCESS OF CENSUS

The portion of the chart in black indicates the per cent of school population not in school attendance. For the United States as a whole, 75.8 per cent of all children of school age are in public schools, 6.8 per cent are in private schools, and 17.4 per cent are in no school whatever.

Table 31 shows census and enrollment data for children between 8 and 14 years, as given in the county superintendents' reports to the State superintendent for the year 1914–15. In 28 of these counties the number enrolled exceeds the total census

enumeration from 1 per cent to 25 per cent. In one county the number enrolled is equal to the census. . . . The given data are useless for this purpose in 29 counties of the State because of the condition stated. *In the other 33 counties 4,845 children, or 12 per cent of the census enumeration between 8 and 14, are reported not enrolled in school.*

The school census (including children between the ages of 5 and 18) should not be used as a basis for apportionment of school money, but to ascertain the number of children to be educated.



HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1915-16.
PER CENT OF TOTAL SCHOOL ENROLLMENT.

For each 100 children enrolled in the public schools of the United States 7.49 per cent are in the high schools. The map shows graphically how this per cent ranges from 2.55 per cent in the lowest State to 14.55 per cent in the highest.

All private schools should be open to inspection by school authorities.

Mental and physical incapacity are the only legitimate reasons why a child should not be in the public schools.

Truant officers, not school administrators, should be provided for the enforcement of the compulsory school law.

If private schools are utilized, the qualifications of teachers, the school equipment, the quality of instruction, and the course of study should be measured by the same standards by which the public schools are measured.

As education is the business of the State, it is also the right and duty of the State to see to it that children are kept in school in spite of poverty or need for labor. It is further the right of the State to see to it that provision is made for the enforcement of its educational laws.

IV.—RURAL SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

The national industrial transition going on at the present time is forcing upon country communities, whether they will or not, a reorganization of the present educational system. The Nation has long since passed from pioneering in agricultural life and must hereafter enter upon an era of scientific international commercial farming. This requires for the country community a type of school education which will do more than give farm people the tools of an education; they must be taught to become real agriculturists. The type of school that can best provide this education is the modern consolidated farm community school, furnishing both elementary and secondary education; or, where this is not practicable, a modern one-teacher school.

There are, according to estimates made by the United States Bureau of Education, approximately 210,000 one-teacher rural schools in the United States, and approximately 10,500 consolidated schools.

By a consolidated school is meant a union of two or more schools of the same district, or in outlying districts, to form a well-organized graded school. Consolidation of rural schools has made the greatest headway in States where the county or township is the unit. Massachusetts, Indiana, Ohio, Utah, Louisiana, and North Dakota are examples of such States. In States organized on the district basis consolidation has made slow progress, except States where subsidy has been offered, as in Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and Washington. There are three types of consolidated schools prevalent throughout the United States, as follows: (a) Associated schools; (b) partial consolidation; (c) complete consolidation.

An associated school organization includes a rural trading center or central village and the surrounding country districts that use this center as a trading and social center. The outlying schools retain their independent organizations for local purposes, but are merged into the large district for matters of common educational interest. The school officers of the local districts are retained as boards for the management of their own local schools. In addition, representatives from each local district form an associated board to manage affairs of common interest, such as disbursing associated district funds and employing special instructors. This plan provides an avenue for the extension of supervised industrial courses into the one-teacher rural schools. In such a school organization pupils completing the eight grades in the country generally

continue their high school course in the village center. Such a school further provides ample opportunity for community activities associated with the school. The Putnam Act in Minnesota makes provision for this type of school.

By partial consolidation is meant a plan whereby the outlying rural schools are maintained for the lower grades and the upper grade pupils are transported to a central school. This type of consolidation is prevalent in many conservative districts throughout the United States. In Missouri, the Buford-Colley Act provides for partial consolidation as well as for complete consolidation. It is a more expensive scheme than complete consolidation, but prepares the way for the latter.

In complete consolidation, as the name signifies, the small outlying schools are all consolidated at a central point. The school maintains an up-to-date plant with a carefully graded system, an efficient teaching force, and a course of study embracing both the academic and industrial phases of the curriculum. There are many such schools throughout the United States, especially in the States where consolidation has made the greatest progress. These schools are organized in the open country or about a village or town as a center.

THE MODERN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL.

There are places where because of geographical conditions the one-teacher schools must continue to exist. In order to best meet the needs of the community such a one-teacher school should contain:

A plant standardized as to light, heat, ventilation, and sanitation. There should be ample provision for teaching the industrial subjects. This would mean a one-teacher building with several rooms and sufficient ground for laboratory experiments in agricultural subjects, and a house for the teacher.

The teacher in charge should be a person who prefers the country to the city and is trained to meet the problems arising in a one-teacher community school. This teacher should be hired for the entire year. During the summer the school work should be largely industrial and should be carried on in connection with projects worked out at home.

A course of study that serves the peculiar needs of the community.

THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL.

It is safe to say that the period of experimentation in school consolidation has passed. The movement has come to be accepted as good national policy. The important thing at this time is to see that school consolidation shall come in its best form, otherwise little will be gained by displacing the old type of education.

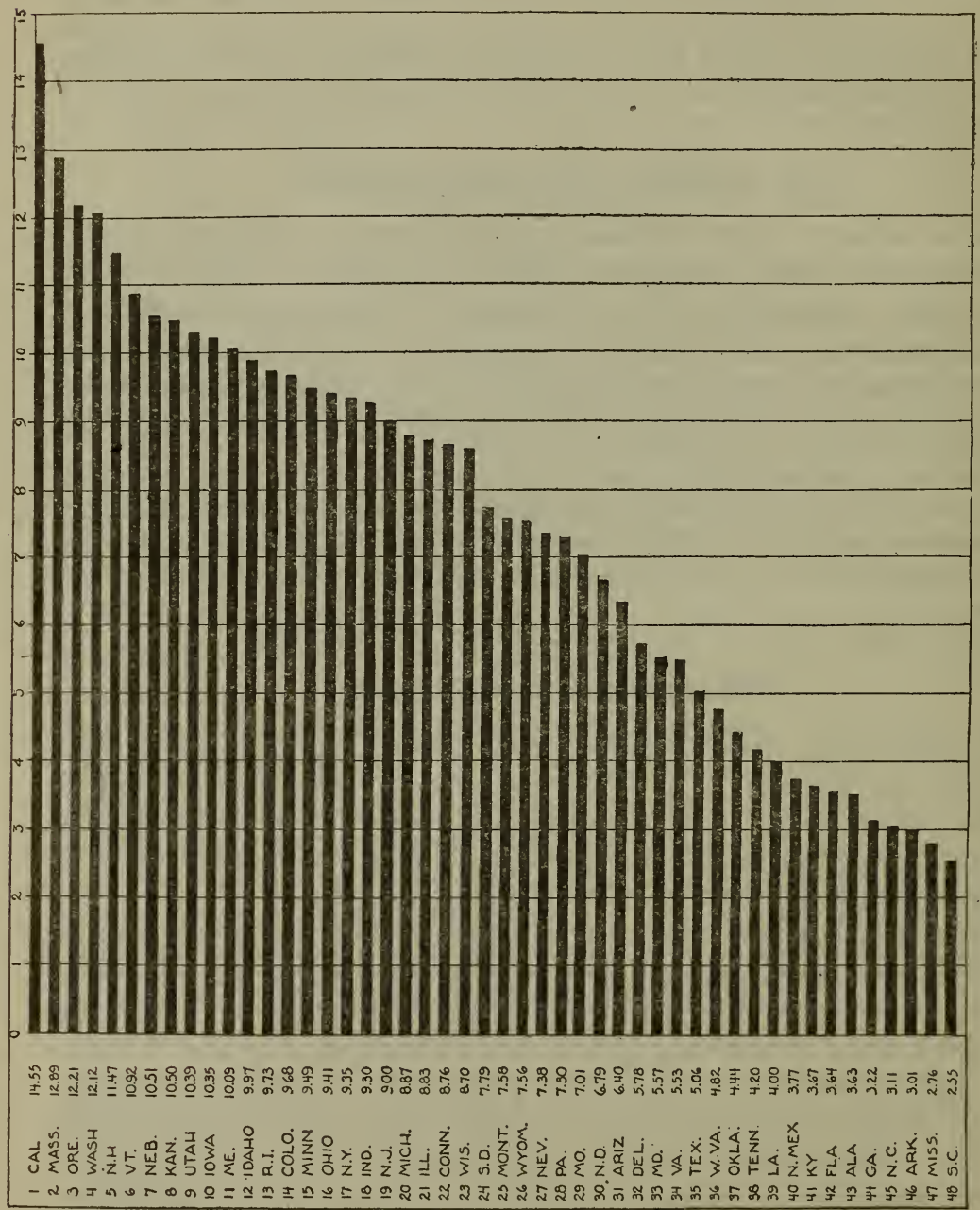
The most satisfactory type of consolidated school is planned to give the rural community just the kind of education required by an agricultural population; broadly cultural and yet practical, preparing them for happy, wholesome remunerative living on the land. Many of the early consolidated schools were planned as big graded schools, offering courses of study in no sense adapted to the needs of rural districts. *The school should be organized with a view to preparing, for the new agricultural era a permanent farming population of highest ideals.* Some of the essentials to be included in a just consolidation law are these:

1. State aid to be given on conditions assuring the State department of education that the school will be properly maintained, organized, and taught.

2. State aid might be given as aid in (a) erecting the new building; (b) for annual maintenance provided (1) that no less than five acres of land be utilized for grounds and experiment plats, (2) that a home be erected on the premises for the principal and other teachers, (3) that the principal and instructor in agriculture, at least, be hired by the year to give all the time to the school and agricultural community, and (4) that the course of study be adapted to the needs of its particular agricultural section.

RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

One of the most urgent problems in rural education is to provide the people with easily accessible rural high schools. The percentage of



This graphic chart ranks the States on the basis of the per cent enrollment in high school for each 100 children in the public schools.

country people educated in secondary schools of rural type is amazingly small in contrast with the percentage of city people who have the advantages of city high schools. Rural people who are favorably

situated with regard to town high school facilities take advantage of the latter, although it often draws the farming class away from agricultural activities into other callings. City schools are organized for city children; rural high schools should be organized for rural children. Some people, and farmers among them, hold the false opinion that to distinguish between city and country people in educational affairs amounts to discrimination against country children. Such opinion is based on the assumption that city life is superior to country life which to those who understand it best is really the only normal American life there is.

The present trend is to establish rural high schools of an agricultural type in connection with the consolidated schools, either in the open country or in the rural villages and *to plan the work of these schools so as to meet the needs of all country people, whether they are of ordinary school age or not.*

The legislatures might well pass legislation making provision for the following types of educational activities in connection with the rural high schools:

1. The elimination of illiteracy and Americanization of the foreign born.
2. Continuation schools for people beyond ordinary school age.
3. Part-time schools for people who must work for a livelihood.
4. Educational extension courses for young and old people.

V.—SCHOOL FINANCES.

One of the most vital factors in an efficient public-school system is the law which provides the necessary funds. A school system that has ample funds can have all that is necessary in buildings, in grounds, in equipment, in length of school term, and in teachers adequately prepared for their work.

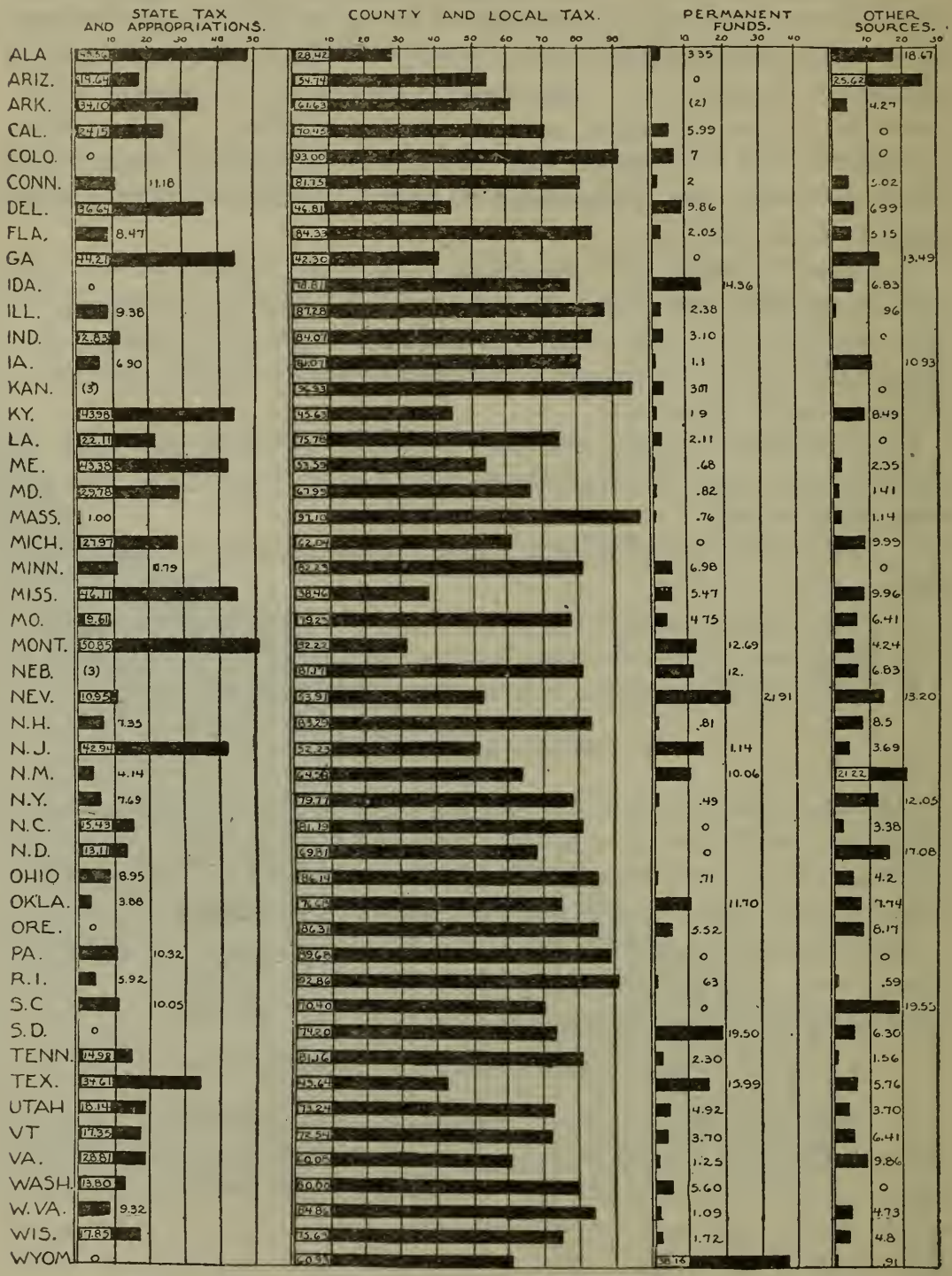
The responsibility for the establishment of an efficient public-school system rests jointly upon the Nation, the State, the county, or other administrative subdivision, and the school community.

STATE AND COUNTY TAXATION.

In every progressive State system of education such areas or units of taxation should be created or continued, if already in existence, as will fully develop the sound American principle that the whole wealth of the State shall be made available for educating all the youth of the State. This is both right and necessary, as in the United States education is largely a state function to be supported like other civil functions.

From a national standpoint there are rich States and poor States in which all the children of all the people should be provided with equal educational opportunity. The same is true from the standpoint of the State as concerns counties or townships, and of counties as concerns local-school communities. But the facts already cited

in favor of Federal aid prove beyond a doubt that practically half of the children of school age in the United States are far from having

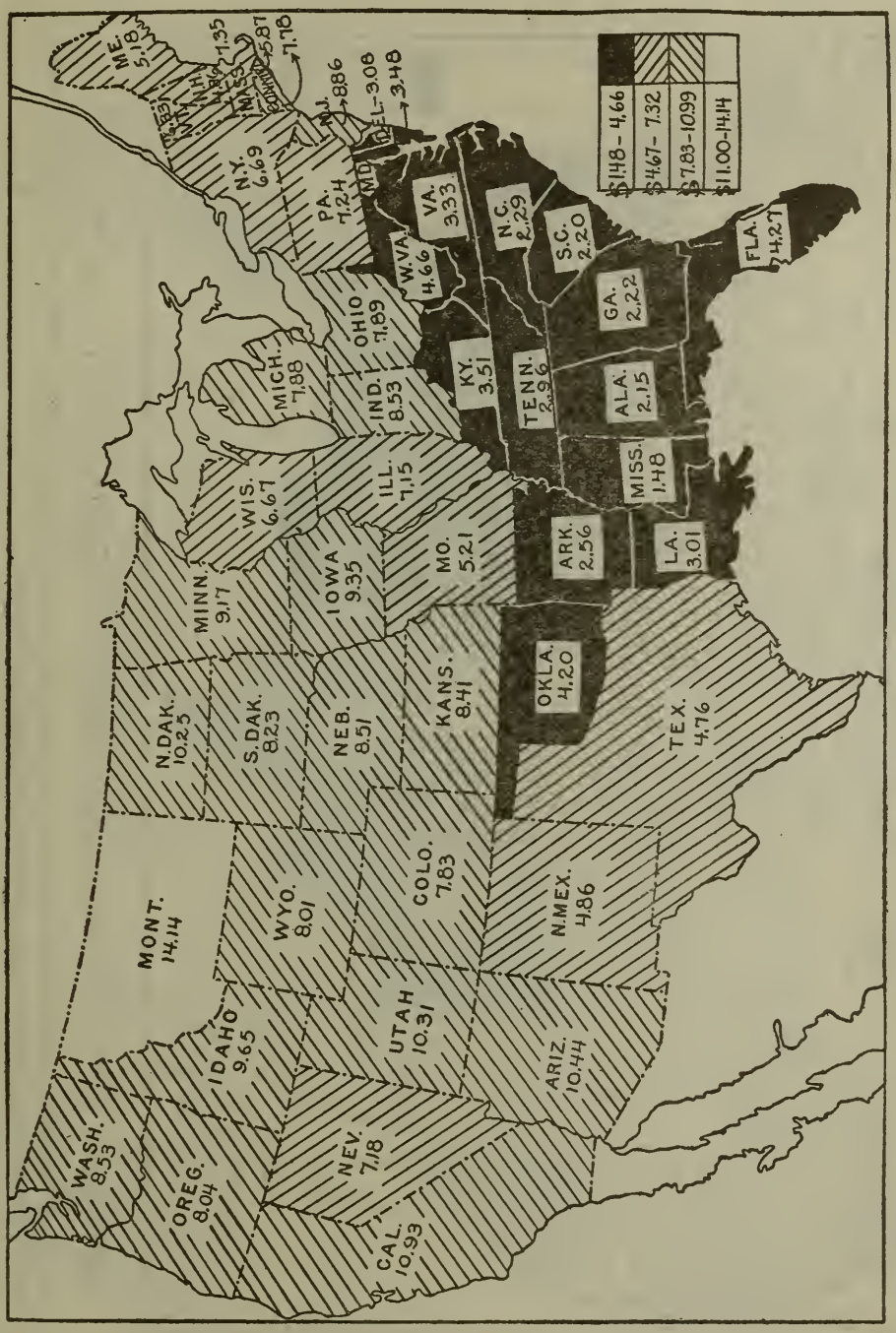


PER CENT of SCHOOL FUND DERIVED FROM EACH SOURCE. 1915-1916.
U.S. BUREAU of EDUCATION REPORT 1917 p.79

This chart shows graphically the several sources of school revenue in the United States. Unfortunately it is impossible, with the data at hand, to separate county and other local taxes.

equal educational opportunity with the other more fortunate half. There is not a single State in which all the children have equal educational opportunity.

In several States the per cent of all rural pupils completing the eighth grade is less than 30, while the per cent of all city pupils completing the eighth grade is 86. In other words, nearly 300 per cent more of city pupils complete the eighth grade in such States than do farm pupils. The per cent of rural pupils completing the high school in several States is less than 5, while the per cent of all city pupils completing the high school in such States is 29. In other words, over 700 per cent more of city pupils



EXPENDED PER CAPITA TOTAL POPULATION. 1915-16.

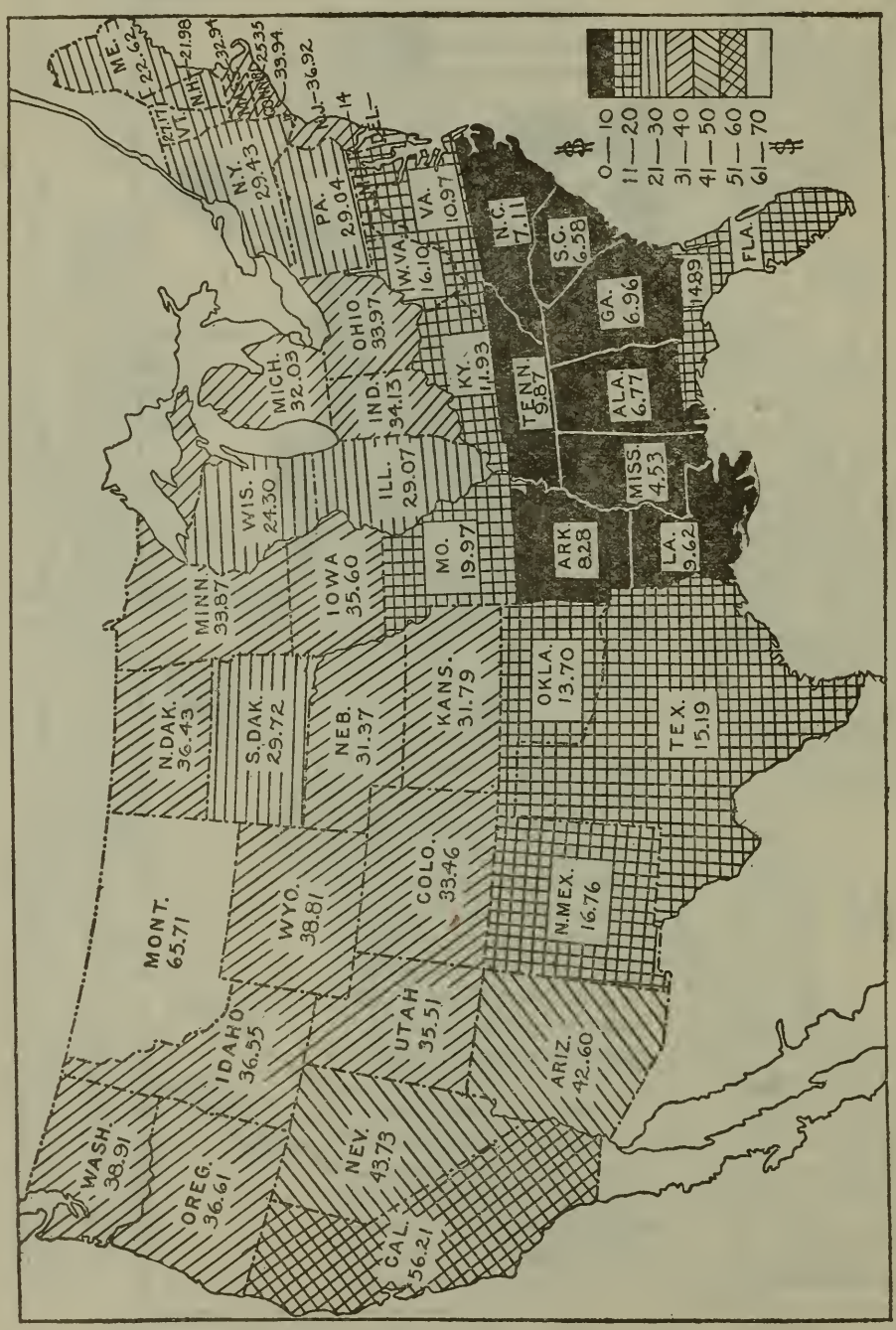
This map shows graphically the total amount spent for education by each State per capita of total population. This varies from $1.48 in the lowest State to $14.14 in the highest.

complete the high school in such States than do farm pupils. This illustrates the neglect of rural education in all States.

Much of this discrimination against rural pupils in the meager educational opportunity provided for them comes from lack of appreciation of education on the part of the farm people themselves. But most of it must be charged to the antiquated, unjust, and undemocratic methods in the system of public-school taxation that prevails in many States.

THE COUNTY, THE TAX UNIT FOR GENERAL SCHOOL MAINTENANCE.

A sound and progressive State policy of public education must provide definite plans of support which will insure the successful carrying out of the best educational policies throughout the entire State. *The county should be the responsible unit of local educational*



AVERAGE EXPENDITURE PER CAPITA OF POPULATION. 5-18 YRS. 1915-16

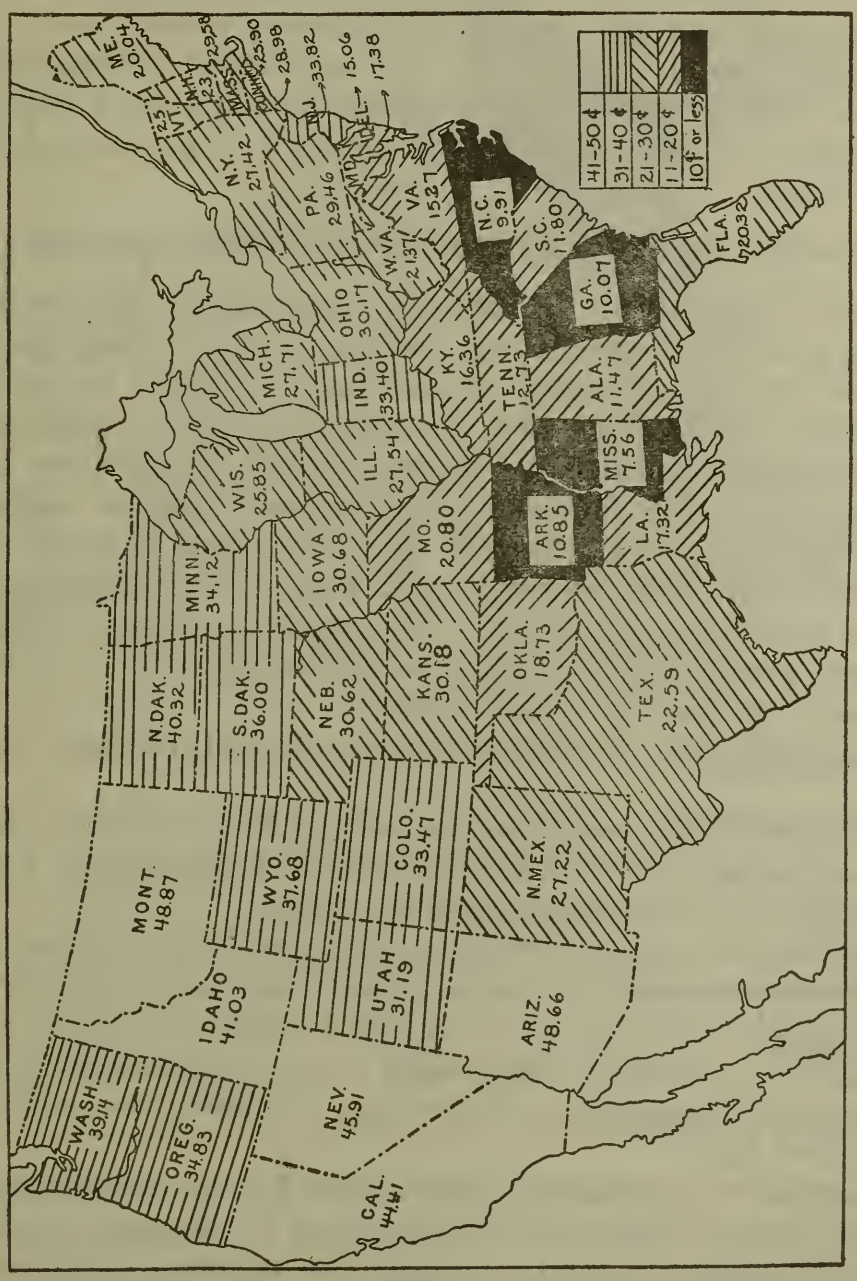
This map shows the average amount expended per capita for each child of normal school attendance age—that is, for the period of years ordinarily included in the elementary and secondary schools.

support in harmony with the plans of the State as a whole. In this manner it will be possible to equalize the conditions of taxation and expenditure within the constituent districts. *The local school communities should be allowed to supplement the county tax in order to more fully realize local ideals,* because the county tax may not

always be sufficient for that purpose. The county tax tends to insure a fair taxation and expenditure throughout its borders, but at that point it reaches its limitations.

A STATE-WIDE TAX EMINENTLY JUST.

In order to safeguard the interests of the State as a whole and develop the larger sections which are in need of help, a permanent State tax is



DAILY EXPENDITURE FOR SCHOOLS. BASED ON PER CAPITA OF AVERAGE ATTENDANCE. 1915-1916

The figures indicate the number of cents expended for each child in average daily attendance. This ranges from 9.90 cents in the lowest State to 48.87 cents in the highest.

necessary. In the second place, the State should levy an annual school tax which, in addition to the income from the permanent funds, would amount to not less than one-third of the total public-school revenue. Such a proportion properly expended will tend to equalize conditions throughout the State. The experience of

some of the most progressive State-school systems, such as are found in California, Montana, and New Jersey, shows the great value of a well-directed State tax of good proportions.

The proceeds of the State tax should be used to extend a special aid to poor districts in the sparsely settled sections of the State where consolidation of schools is yet impracticable. It might also well be used as a stimulus to further consolidation of schools, and in assisting communities to maintain teacher-training departments in high schools; also for the association of district schools and for the maintenance of rural high schools. The amount of aid granted should be based on the aggregate daily attendance and the number of teachers employed rather than on the total school population of the county district.

PUBLIC EDUCATION INVOLVES CONTINUALLY GROWING EXPENSES.

The essential characteristic of first-class educational support is stability and growth. A fluctuating income can not bring good results. It is therefore necessary to raise and expend as large an amount of money as the State and counties can afford in order to teach the maximum of efficiency. A study of the expenditures in some of the States with first-class public-school systems shows that these States have been willing to do many times as much as some other States in order to reach their goal. Public education can not be a money-saving process. *The present conditions in this country demand a much larger expenditure than heretofore in order to obtain the needed efficiency of school service.*

Progressive legislation on school taxation should consider the following:

1. The adoption of the county as the unit of local taxation; the funds when collected to be used for general school maintenance and to equalize educational advantages over the county.

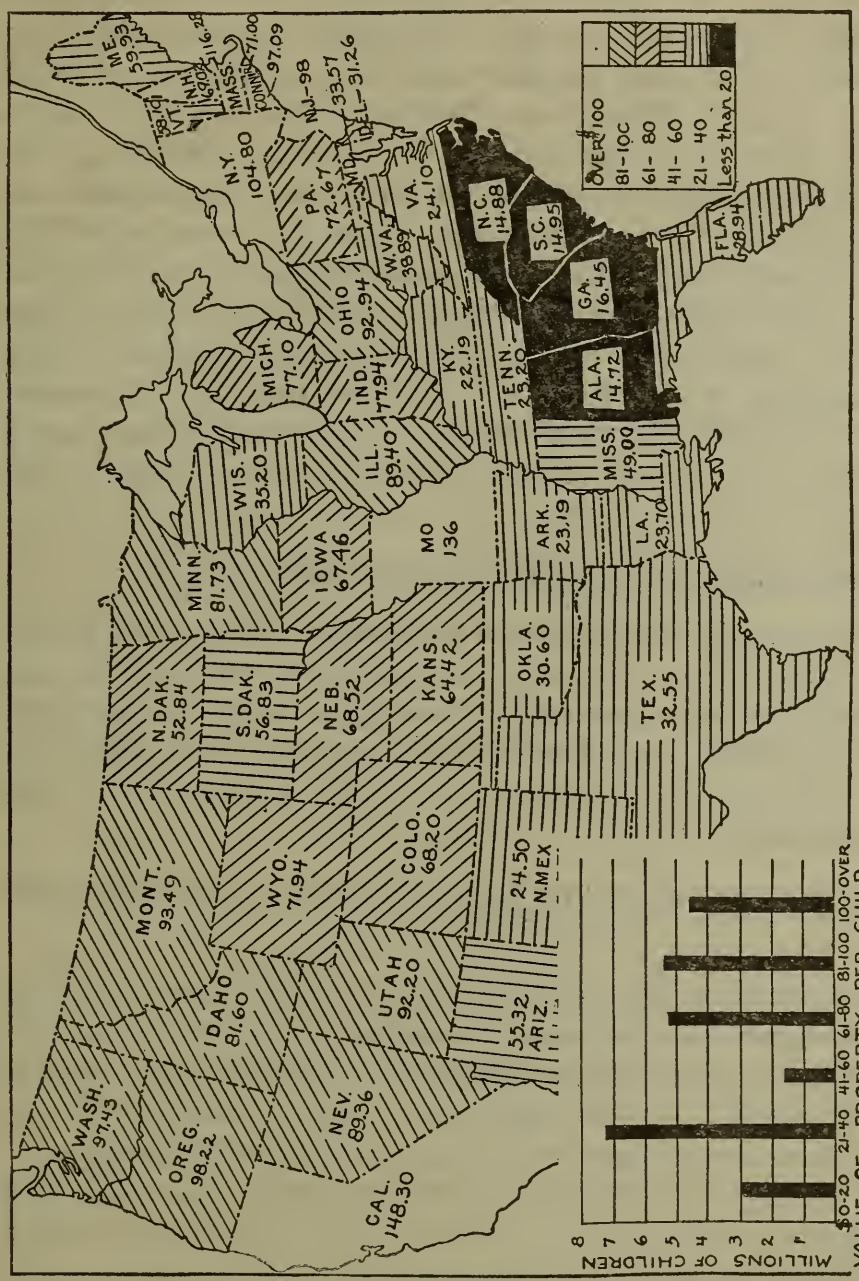
2. The local school community to be authorized to levy taxes or to issue bonds for extraordinary purposes only, such as erecting new buildings and procuring larger sites and school farms.

3. The levying of a State tax equivalent to not less than one-third of the whole school maintenance of the State (including the present permanent school fund).

4. The adoption of a permanent millage tax for the maintenance of the State's higher educational institutions, to be apportioned according to the needs of each institution, to supplant legislative appropriations.

5. The adoption of a new basis for the distribution of the present State permanent fund and future State taxes as follows: (a) *The permanent fund to be distributed on the basis of aggregate daily attendance and the number of teachers employed* instead of, as now usually

done, on the basis of school population, provided that weak schools in sparsely settled sections of the State be given special State aid sufficient to maintain an annual school of at leat eight months; (b) *the proposed State taxes to be awarded for consolidation of schools, estab-*



School Property.—Investment for each child 5 to 18 years. 1915–16.

The map shows the investment in school property for each child of school age. The numbers indicate the total property value per school child to be educated. The corner graph indicates in millions the number of children affected, by States in each group.

lishment of rural and other high schools, only when the local school communities have indicated their cooperation by agreeing to certain requirements made by law as a stipulation under which such aid may be received.

VI.—PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

THE WAR'S REVELATION OF THE NEED.

The war has aroused all nations to an appreciation of the value of physical education. Man power is recognized as the most valuable of all national resources. We sent 2,000,000 splendid young men across the seas and we had another 2,000,000 in training when the armistice was signed. These were the very pick and pride of the Nation. But there is another side of the picture. Of the millions of young men who were drafted about 20 per cent were physically unfit for any military service and about 15 per cent more were fit for limited service only; few of those who were accepted were physically well trained; even fewer had been taught to take good physical care of themselves. The defects which made these men unfit for military service are largely preventable; the lack of training and the ignorance of health laws are entirely preventable. A thoroughgoing program of physical education in our schools would prevent or remedy these deficiencies.

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE STATE LEGISLATION.

Since the beginning of the war in 1914 eight States have enacted physical education laws.[1] Careful study of these laws both on paper and in operation shows that certain principles must be recognized and incorporated into such laws if they are to be effective. The enactment of weak and perfunctory legislation will result in failure and disappointment.[2]

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING STATE LEGISLATION FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

The enactment of an adequate and effective State law for physical education requires a clear understanding of three things: The objects to be secured through physical education; the processes and accessories necessary for securing these objects; the specific provisions that must be incorporated in the legislative measure.

1. *Objects of physical education.*—Obviously the object of a State law for physical education is to secure the development of the potential physical capacity of the boys and girls of the State; to make them physically, morally, and socially fit for the duties of citizenship and the joy of wholesome living. Quite as obviously, no system of education, however broadly conceived, can do this single-handed. Education is but one of the social agencies involved in the successful upbringing of youth. Good housing, adequate food, and sane regulation of juvenile labor are equally necessary. Without these

[1] Illinois, New York, New Jersey, Rhode Island, California, Nevada, Maryland, and Delaware.

[2] For fuller information see Recent State Legislation for Physical Education. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1918, No. 40. (In press.)

cooperative conditions, any system of physical education can be only partially successful in its appointed task of developing the physical capacity of the youth of the State; but an adequate and effective system of physical education will surely stimulate the development of these other agencies in a State.

2. *Processes and accessories.*—The processes and accessories by which the development of physical capacity are effected may be classified with sufficient accuracy as follows:

(1) Processes—

(a) Sufficient physical activity of the right character to insure development of strength, endurance, agility, and trained control of the muscular powers; and the moral and social qualities of courage, self-control, self-subordination, cooperation, and initiative.

(b) Training into health habits and instruction in health knowledge in order that the individual may know how to take care of his "animal machine" and may reverence it as a servant for high purposes.

(2) Accessories—

(a) Physical examination—the charting, as it were, of each individual's physical character—repeated at sufficiently frequent intervals to secure a record of growth and physical status.

(b) Provision for correction of deficient bodily conditions that impair health and development.

(c) Adequate space and equipment for exercise appropriate to varying ages and varying physical and mental status of children and youth.

(d) Sanitary school environment, including buildings, grounds, and equipment.

(e) Organization and management of the daily school program and methods of instruction in the interest of health and vigor.

3. *Legislative provision.*—The legislative provision necessary to an effective State system of physical education will include the following:

(1) A clear statement of the purpose and object of the law.

(2) Provision of administrative machinery in the State department of education sufficient for the effective administration of the law. This provision should be broad and flexible. Two things are essential:

(a) State direction and supervision. The best plan is a State director of physical education with the rank of deputy or assistant State superintendent. His powers and duties must not be narrowly defined.

(b) Sufficient financial resources to insure the effective administration of this office, either by specific appropriation or by authorizing the State department to make adequate appropriation for this purpose out of general school funds.

(3) Provision for the continuous physical education of all children and youth of school age (6–18) in the State, as follows:

(a) All children in all grades and departments of the public schools.

(b) All children in institutional and private schools.

(c) All students in normal schools and other schools in which teachers are trained.

(d) All boys and girls of school age in industry. This may be secured by extending the continuation school program so as to make physical education obligatory up to 18; or it may be secured by recognizing and crediting such agencies as municipal playgrounds, Boy Scouts, and Young Men's Christian Association. Attempts at precise definition in the law should be avoided. It should be left as an administrative problem under general authorization.

(4) A minimum time requirement for physical education of one hour each day. It should be explicit that this is the minimum and that school authorities are encouraged to increase the time devoted to play, recreation, and athletics outside the regular school hours. For children in the higher grades and in industry, activities that are approved by the State director of physical education as equivalent to prescribed courses in physical education should be accepted as fulfilling, in whole or in part, the time and quality requirements in physical education.

(5) There should be a carefully drawn provision authorizing and requiring the employment of supervisors and special teachers under specified conditions and in harmony with the administrative organization of the State. A State with a county unit organization would require county supervisors; one with supervisory districts would require district supervisions. City systems would require both supervisors and special teachers—the latter for intermediate and high schools at least. By "specified conditions" is meant that a supervisor should be required for a given unit of school population, the size of the unit to depend upon density of population.

(6) Provision for State aid to county and local authorities in part payment of the salaries of supervisors and special teachers.

(7) Provision requiring the State department of education to fix qualifications of supervisors and special teachers and to issue special licenses for the same.

(8) Provision for adequate physical education in the preparation of all teachers, both for the secondary and the elementary school. The essential requirements of this part of the teacher's education should be prescribed by the State authorities.

(9) Special provision for training regular class teachers already in the service in order that they may do their essential part in the program of physical education.

(10) Provision requiring that pupils be graded in physical education as in other school subjects and exercises and that satisfactory

progress in physical education be a condition to promotion and graduation.

(11) Effective provision for coordinating medical and sanitary supervision of schools with the physical education. Otherwise such essential factors in a complete program of physical education as detection and correction of defects and sanitary conditions of grounds, buildings, and equipment will be neglected. Most States having medical inspection laws will need to revise and extend them. In States having no such laws the enactment of medical inspection and physical education laws should be worked out so as to insure effective coordination. Under medical and sanitary supervision there should certainly be included provision (*a*) for inspection for detection and control of communicable disease; (*b*) for periodic examination to discover abnormalities that prevent or retard development; (*c*) for the employment of school nurses; (*d*) for school clinics to insure remedying of defects and disabilities (especially dental and eye clinics); and (*e*) for regular inspection of school buildings, premises, and drinking water to insure sanitary conditions.

(12) If, as in some of the laws already enacted, reference is made to military training, the interrelations should be clearly recognized. A system of physical education worthy the name must include all the essentials of premilitary training: Development of sound physical condition; training in care of one's physical self; training in cooperation; and respect for discipline. Drill in tactics and the manual of arms can not be accepted as a substitute or equivalent for the course in physical education. If military training is authorized in the law, then the State director of physical education should be authorized and required to pass upon the value of any proposed plan of military training and to accept it as a substitute for physical education only in so far as it includes the health, vigor, and endurance-producing features of the physical education program.

VII.—SCHOOL GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

Public school grounds, well located, neatly kept, with beautiful and convenient buildings, are the most striking evidence of the intelligence of a community and its interest in education.

Better school conditions invariably mean better schools and better community spirit.

A beautiful and convenient school building costs little more than an unsightly one.

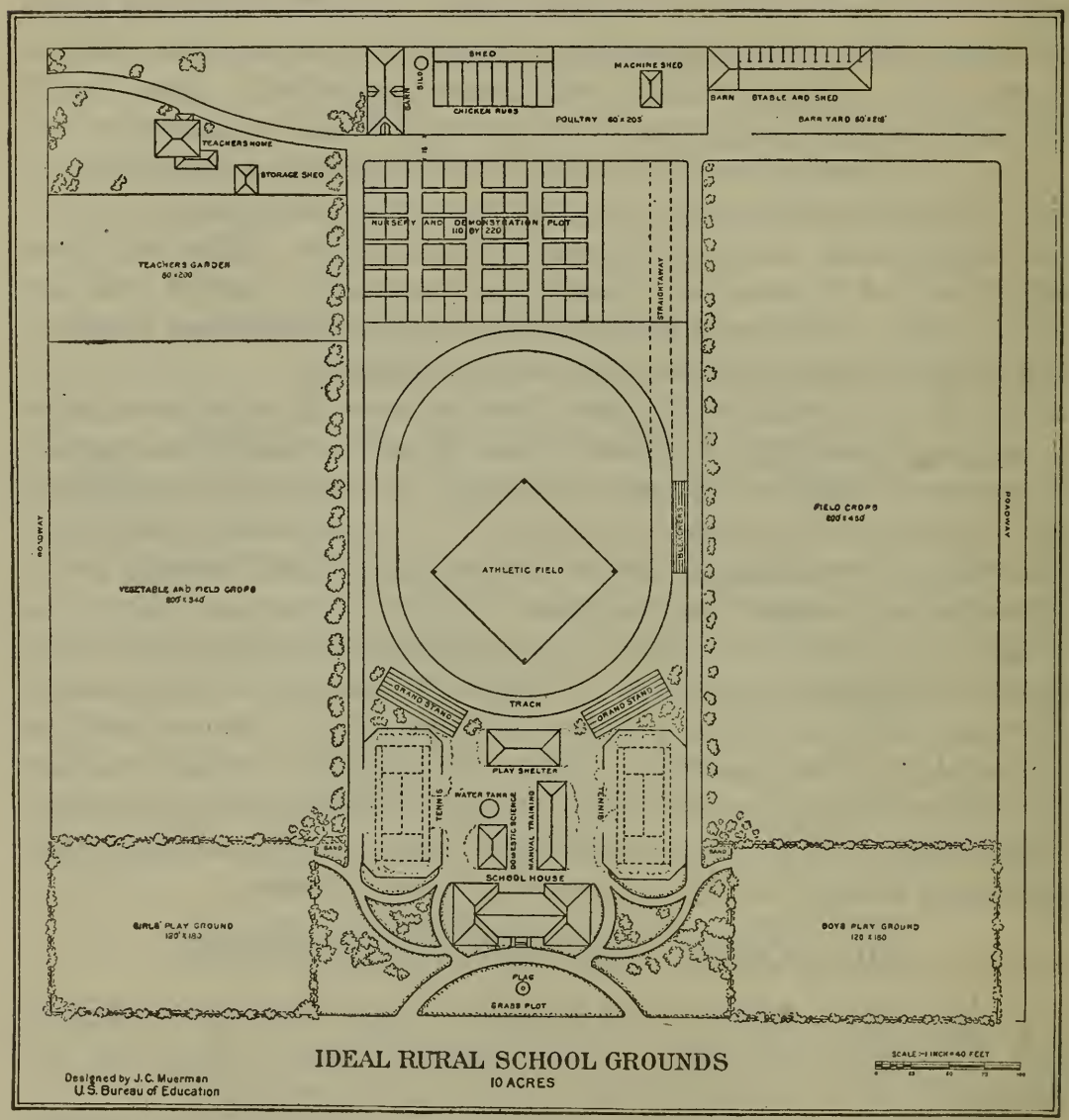
An excellent authority maintains that "a good school is the best asset and the best dividend-paying property in any community."

A State report offers the following significant advice:

As the proper instruction of our boys and girls is the highest and most important function in which the home, the community, and the States unite, the school building

and grounds of every locality should be a concrete expression of its highest ideals, a translation into visible form of the best thought of the best minds, the outgrowth and consummation of all that it can conceive and do for the physical, intellectual, and spiritual needs of its youth.

The delay occasioned by the war in schoolhouse construction has given time and opportunity to study the most modern types of school buildings, to profit by the mistakes already made, and to change existing plans to conform to the highest standards of efficiency.



Ground plan of an ideal rural community school, prepared in miniature by the Bureau of Education for the Panama-Pacific Exposition. Provision is made for housing the teacher and in other ways making the school a real farmers' school.

The order of the chairman of the War Industries Board, issued November 21, 1918, revoked all restrictions placed upon non-war public buildings.

School buildings that were partly constructed and new ones with plans approved and bonds voted and sold may now be completed without further interruption.

PROVISIONS FOR SUITABLE BUILDINGS AND THEIR USE.

During the coming year schoolhouse construction will probably far exceed that of any past year. The scarcity and high cost of building materials, together with the inadequate supply of labor, will soon be adjusted so that the present partly completed school buildings may be ready for occupancy at the opening of the school year 1919.

State aid for rural districts and for high schools maintaining courses in special subjects, such as agriculture, manual training, and domestic science, is common in many States, and the demand is growing. State aid is usually based on a requirement that suitable buildings and equipment be provided by the district. *No State aid should be be given a school district unless the school building is in good condition and of sufficient size to provide for the future growth of the school.*

The unit plan of school solves the problem of needed additions to meet State aid requirements. This is a plan for a composite building larger than may be needed immediately, but which provides that the structure may be built in two, three, or four sections at different times.

In some of the States the schoolhouse is used as a polling place. State school laws frequently permit and recommend the use of the schoolhouse as a community center.

School buildings are the property of the people and should be used by them. The following motto has been suggested as a legend to be placed above the door of every schoolhouse:[1] "This building is dedicated to the service of this community and to the common cause of a better life for all."

For community use an assembly room is essential even in a one-teacher school. It is possible to plan the building so that the main room, while in daily use as a classroom, may be adapted to serve as a community auditorium for evening gatherings. This may be accomplished with very little additional expense. *Such plans are now being prepared by the United States Bureau of Education for general distribution.*

In selecting the site for a new school building in rural sections, its use as a community center should receive particular attention. The schoolhouse should be placed at the natural center of the community. Our schoolhouses at present are used for directors' meetings, for farmers' institutes, and gatherings of different descriptions. The war has forced a public use of thousands of school buildings that otherwise would not have been so used. They were utilized for Red Cross work, Liberty Loan drives, and Thrift Stamp campaigns. This is the true community service to which every school building in the land should be dedicated.

PLANS FOR BUILDINGS TO BE PROVIDED BY STATE.

Nine-tenths of the now existing regulations governing schoolhouse construction have been passed by the legislatures of the different States during the past decade.[2] More than 40 States now have laws on the subject of hygienic features in school architecture.

In four States the boards of health provide sanitary regulations for all school buildings. In five States the boards of health cooperate with the State boards of education and the State architect in preparing

[1] Bulletin, 1914, No. 12. [2] Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 21.

school building plans. In 19 States the State boards of education approve the plans for school buildings. In 30 States the approval of school plans or improvements is vested in the State authorities.

SCHOOL PLANS AND SPECIFICATIONS SHOULD BE PREPARED WHOLLY UNDER THE DIRECTION OF COMPETENT STATE AUTHORITY.

So strong is sentiment growing in favor of having plans and specifications of new school buildings, repairs, enlargements, and remodeling of old ones, approved and supervised by competent State authorities that soon every State will have definite laws for governing schoolhouse construction. General satisfaction invariably follows the enactment of such legislation, because it relieves the local school board of all responsibility and saves the cost of a special building inspector. Such plans should include proper heating, lighting, and ventilation for school buildings, and establish uniform standards for the entire State. Ohio and Indiana, among other States, have very complete sanitary regulations provided in the school code.

The following chart shows the status of regulation of schoolhouse construction in the different States.

The legislatures might well consider the following while formulating legislation on school buildings and improvements:

That such laws be enacted as will allow the freest possible use of public school buildings for community center activities, to make the public school buildings true community forums.

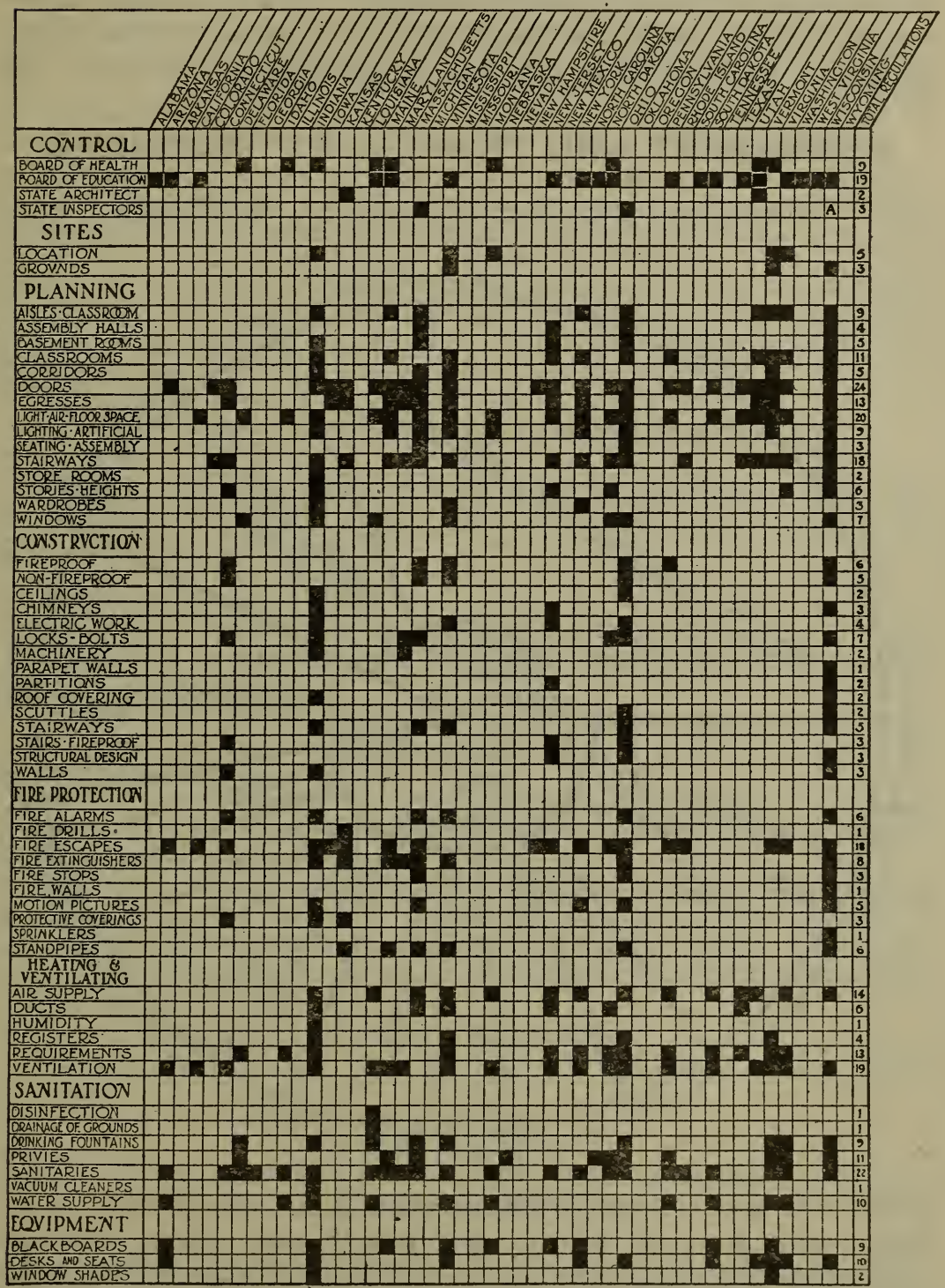
That all plans for school buildings or improvements be approved by the State department of education, acting in cooperation with the State board of health; that a State school architect be selected for this work, and that the power of condemnation of school buildings and grounds be in the hands of competent State authority; that the selection of all school sites and the location of the school buildings on these sites be also approved by the State board of education or by some competent authority selected by this board.

That where no constitutional limitation is placed upon the rate of taxation, the legislature enact such laws as will allow the people of every district freedom in voting a rate of taxation that will provide the needed support of their public schools, to include new schoolhouse construction and necessary improvements.

That no State aid should be given any district which has not made full provision for the care and protection of the school grounds and school buildings; that State aid for weaker districts be given to those who comply with the rules and regulations of the State department only.

CHART SHOWING STATUS OF REGULATION OF SCHOOLHOUSE CONSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES IN THE YEAR 1915

COMPILED BY FRANK IRVING COOPER, ARCHITECT BOSTON.



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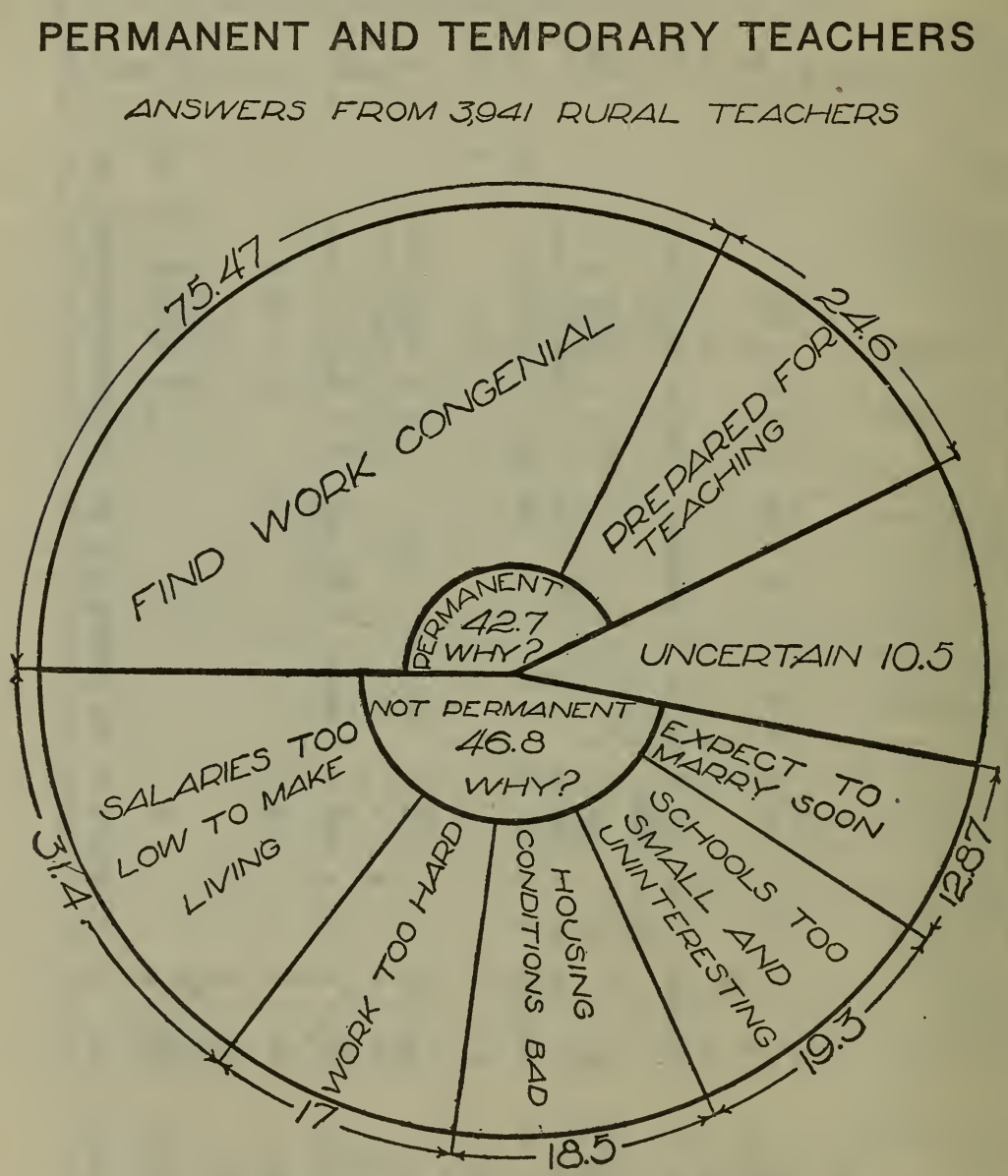
■ INDICATES REGULATION IN FORCE.

VIII.—PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

Even before the war, the most difficult phase of the whole educational problem was how to get and retain a sufficient number of well-prepared teachers. Since the country's entrance into the war, the problem has become greatly intensified. Now is the time, therefore, to drive home to the people what is necessary before better things can be attained in the field of professional teaching. The



people will have to become fully aware of their responsibility toward the teacher; they will have to make schools and housing conditions more attractive than they now are; and in other ways make possible long well-paid tenures in the same community.

The several legislatures should, by legal enactment, safeguard the profession and offer special inducements to all teachers to equip

themselves well for teaching as a life work. On this basis, the teachers will be more ready than now to do their share to attain real professional standrads of teaching.

Conditions are particularly bad in the rural schools. The bureau estimate for past years places the annual number of new rural teachers at about 87,500. The proportion of beginning teachers for the current year is abnormally large. In some counties as high as 85 per cent of the teachers have had no previous experience. It appears that at least 125,000 inexperienced teachers are employed in rural communities this year. In addition to this, the rural schools are losing most of their men teachers because the salaries paid are not sufficient for the support of a man and his family.

The graphic representation given on the preceding page gives the situation from the teachers' point of view. It is the result of a Bureau of Education study of all the rural teachers in South Dakota; 42.7 per cent of the teachers are permanently in the schools; 10.5 per cent are uncertain as to whether or not they will remain permanently in the profession; and 46.8 per cent do not intend to make teaching their life profession. The reasons reported why these teachers do not intend to remain permanently in the schools should be cause for serious consideration by legislatures as they tell the story of rural teachers for every State in the Union.

REASONABLE STANDARDS FOR TEACHER PREPARATION.

Adequate legislation on the basis of the comprehensive plan outlined below will unquestionably provide the State with a high-grade professional teaching-staff:

1. Improve teaching conditions by—

(a) Establishing reasonable minimum salaries for all teachers.

(b) Scaling all teacher's salaries to the grade of certificate held, thus placing a premium on special preparation.

2. Require higher teaching qualifications by—

(*a*) Increasing, gradually, the entrance requirements of the State normal schools and lengthening their study courses.

(*b*) Discontinuing the issue of certificates on examination as soon as the normal schools and other teacher-training institutions have become fully equipped to supply all the professional teachers required.

(c) Placing the minimum requirement for permission to teach at graduation from an accredited four-year high school, or its equivalent, and in addition at least one year's professional study acquired at a professional school for teachers. The standard not to go into effect before ample time (1 to 4 years) is given for all teachers in the service to attain these requirements.

3. Increase the supply of professional teachers by—

(a) Granting State bonuses to teachers as rewards for long service in a single school community.

(b) Establishing a retirement fund for teachers.

RADICAL STEPS REQUIRED TO PROVIDE THE NECESSARY SUPPLY OF RURAL TEACHERS.

The Nation needs immediately many thousand specifically prepared teachers for the new consolidated and other rural schools, in order to make these schools real farm community schools. This may be accomplished by establishing, through legislative enactment,

teacher-training departments in all the higher educational institutions in the State which can at all adapt their work to this end. This would usually include:

1. State normal schools—in specifically organized departments.
2. Schools of education in universities and colleges—in special courses for special rural school administration and supervision.
3. Agricultural colleges—in specific departments or courses for special subject teachers and supervisors, and principals of large rural schools of agricultural type.
4. Fully accredited high schools—in fifth year course teacher-training departments.
5. Extension service for teachers in service—to aid them to meet the increased academic and professional standards contemplated above.

IX.—CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

From the very early times in our educational history, whenever any ormal recognition of the school was taken, or support given to them by civil authorities, it has been the custom to require of the teacher some sort of certificate of proficiency. Early requirements were very meager and generally of a religious or moral nature rather than of an academic nature, though as early as 1789 in Massachusetts graduation from college or university was recognized as sufficient guarantee of ability to teach. These early customs, however inadequate, established a precedent; for all State systems of schools when effected legalized the idea of exacting some standard of attainment from applicants to teach.

The power of certifying teachers was vested by the early laws, sometimes in the State, as in New York; sometimes in the county, as in Missouri and Indiana; sometimes exclusively in the local authorities, as in Massachusetts, and sometimes in all of them. County authorities, however, were the most convenient and popular for the purpose and the majority of the States vested some or all of the certifying power in them. Later, State departments of education assumed new importance and prestige, and educational powers were granted to State superintendents. Higher efficiency and unified requirements were secured under these new conditions by including among the legal duties of the State superintendent that of granting certificates of State-wide validity.

CENTRALIZING TEACHER CERTIFICATION IN THE STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.

State and county certification prevailed in the majority of States almost from the establishment of their State school systems. In 1887 42 of the 48 States and Territories issued certificates from both of these sources. Four States issued county or local certificates only.

Two States had so centralized the certificating authority that all certificates were issued from the State department.

By 1903 the number of States having the centralized State certificating system had increased to 8. Four still issued county certificates only, and in the remaining 36 both States and county certificates or local certificates, as in Louisiana and Maine, were issued.

By 1911 25 States, or 30 per cent of the total number had adopted the centralized system of issuing certificates from the State only, and by 1918 50 per cent had accomplished complete centralization.

As additional evidence of centralizing tendencies in the matter of certification, it may be added that of the States which still grant certificating authority to counties, much of the responsibility of that privilege such as giving out and examining questions is assumed by the State department. This tendency is on the increase. In 1911, of those States in which county certification prevailed, 8 per cent retained in the State department the power of giving questions and examining papers. In 1918 93 per cent of the county certificating States retained the papers grading authority in the State department.

REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION.

The early indefinite requirements, such as "evidence satisfactory to the examining power" (either local or State authorities) passed into more definite ones, and subjects for examination were enumerated in the law. Reasonably typical of these was the law of Indiana, which required that teachers should be examined "touching their qualifications, and particularly with respect to their knowledge of the English language, writing, and arithmetic." Additional subjects were added from time to time. The custom was early established of grading certificates according to the standing of applicants and of making the duration dependent upon the grade.

In the meantime professional preparation for teaching was becoming more and more common since the establishment of the first normal school in 1839, and demands were increasing that certificates without examination be given to graduates of professional schools. By 1873 the discussion of the professional license had become quite general and various States recognized the demands. By 1890, 25 States had added to the branches in which teachers were examined—one or more professional subjects, usually theory and practice of teaching, or mental philosophy, or didactics. According to the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1897, 28 recognized graduation from normal schools or universities as evidence of qualification for certification without examination. By 1903 the number of these States had increased to 31. During the period from 1911 to 1918 the percentage of States which recognized professional training as a basis for certification increased from 56 to 100 per cent. In 1903, 41 States of the 48 States or Territories included professional subjects in the examining list. This recognition of the efficacy of some form of professional training or examination in professional subjects as controlling factors in judging teaching ability is rapidly gaining a permanent foothold in school legislation throughout the country. All States now include professional subjects in teachers' examinations and the questions of this nature are constantly increasing in number and difficulty.

However, the fact that mere recognition is given does not show the full force of the growth of the demand for professional training on the part of applicants to teach. *A concerted and almost universal*

movement is now on foot to increase both academic and professional requirements for certification. This is shown by the fact that several States not only recognize graduation from a professional school as *one* means, but as the *only* means of preparation for teaching. These States are now requiring graduation from a full four-year high school, usually one which includes professional subjects in its curriculum; or a minimum amount of professional training, or both, as a prerequisite for any kind of certificate. In 1911 Indiana established this precedent, and at the present time 27 per cent of the States in the Union make such requirement.

SPECIALIZATION A REQUISITE FOR CERTIFICATION.

The teaching profession should be specialized at least as highly as other learned and technical professions. Such a plan involves no new idea, but simply carrying to its logical conclusion that already involved in the certification plans of practically all States at the present time and shown in the differentiation of certificates, as high-school, kindergarten, special-subjects certificates. The educational world now recognizes that a marked distinction is necessary in the preparation of candidates for rural school certificates, special vocational certificates, and the like.

The next step in legislation should demand (1) a certain amount of professional training in addition to high-school graduation as a prerequisite for all certificates; and (2) a higher degree of specialization in preparation—manifested on the face of the certificate.

PLAN OF CERTIFICATION.

A few States have adopted the horizontal as distinguished from the vertical plan of certification. This plan involves two grades of certificates, first and second, for high schools, two for elementary schools, two for primary and kindergarten, and two for special subjects, rather than general certificates of two or three grades recognized in all schools of all grades. The plan of certification should be the horizontal one, with special certificates of two grades for at least the following: High school, rural and city; elementary schools, rural and city; primary and kindergarten school certificates, and certificates in special subjects such as music, drawing, and art.

About one-third of the States require some professional training as a prerequisite for all, or nearly all, of the certificates granted. The Maryland law, e. g., permits the issue of one grade of certificate, the third, without professional training, but third-grade certificates are accepted only when the supply of higher-certificate teachers is exhausted. Another indication of the growing importance of professional training is offered by the fact that since 1911 the number of States granting renewals of certificates on the basis of some sort of professional training has increased from 18 to 40 per cent.

The most marked, and probably the most important tendencies of certification provisions of the last few years are (1) that toward making a certain minimum of academic and professional training prerequisite for any certificate, and (2) that of approximating State-wide unity of requirement by concentrating the certificating power in the State department. The latter is now practically accomplished.

The time has long since passed when the American public can afford to intrust the education of its children to the uneducated and untrained as it has done in the past. The State has the power to raise the standard of qualification for teachers through legal enactments concerning certification. Investigations made by the Bureau of Education in several States show that from 30 to 40 per cent of the teachers holding legal certificates at the time of making the surveys were untrained.

No man of prominence has emphasized the value of professional preparation with better logic than the late J. Sterling Morton:

We demand educated educators. We demand professionally trained teachers, men and women of irreproachable character and well tested abilities. We demand from our legislature laws raising the standard of the profession and exalting the office of the teacher. As the doctor of medicine or the practitioner at law is only admitted within the pale of his calling upon the production of his parchment or certificates, so the applicant for the position of instructor in our primary and other schools should be required by law to first produce his diploma, his authority to teach, from the normal schools.

We call no uneducated quack or charlatan to perform surgery upon the bodies of our children lest they may be deformed, crippled, and maimed physically all their lives. Let us take equal care that we entrust the development of the mental faculties to skilled instructors of magnanimous character that the mentalities of our children may not be mutilated, deformed, and crippled to halt and limp through all the centuries of their never-ending lives. The deformed body will die and be forever put out of sight under the ground, but a mind made monstrous by bad teaching dies not, but stalks forever among the ages, an immortal mockery of the divine image.

It is recognized that the adoption of suggestions herein outlined would in some States result in a shortage of applicants possessing qualifications specified. To overcome this a slow evolution rather than a revolution is recommended. While standards and salaries both should be raised immediately, the full professional idea of certification may be approached gradually. The following are recommendations made by the Bureau of Education in various State surveys. While made for specific cases they have general application:

1. The power to grant certificates to teachers should be vested in the State department of education.

2. The State should establish by law reasonable minimum salaries.

3. The issuance of certificates on examination should be discontinued as soon as the teacher-training institutions are equipped to supply the teachers required. Courses in these institutions should be more highly specialized. Certificates granted on the basis of the training given should indicate this specialization.

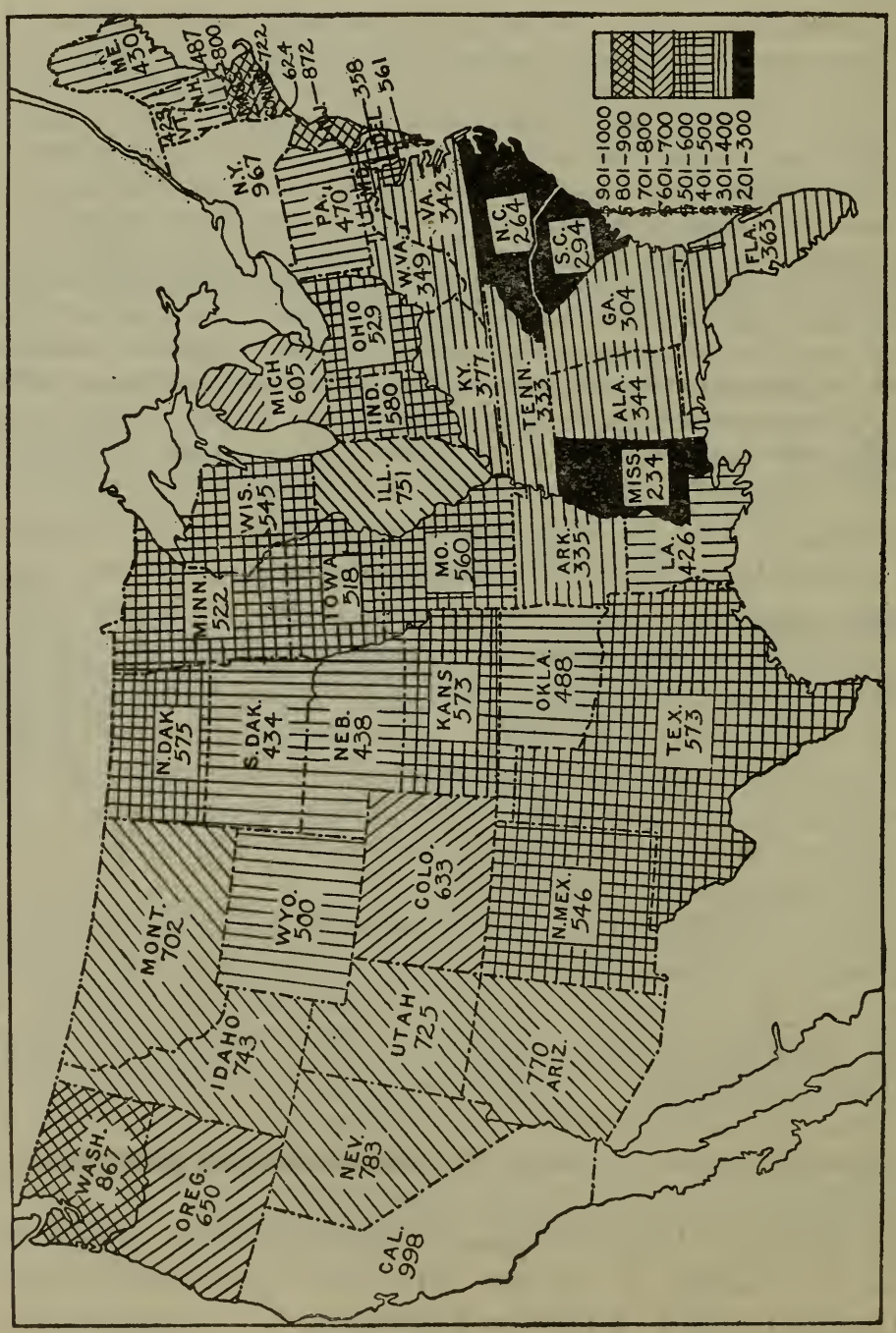
4. Certificates should be based on the horizontal plan; salaries should be scaled to the grade of certificate held.

5. The legislature should establish a fixed date from one to five years after the passage of the law, after which graduation from a standard normal school should be demanded as a prerequisite for

any certificate. While such an arrangement may seem to be inexpedient because of the difficulty to secure teachers, States which have by legislation established such standards find that the supply of teachers rises to the demand after a few years.

X.—TEACHERS' SALARIES, TENURE, AND RETIREMENT PENSIONS.

Salaries of teachers are so low that they offer neither incentive to professional preparation, nor encouragement to long tenure. Moreover, the new and more lucrative opportunities which the war has made available to teachers have made serious inroads on the profession. It can not now be expected that qualified persons will



AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARY OF TEACHERS. 1915-16.

The map gives the range by States of annual salary for all teachers. The average ranges from $234 in the lowest State to $998 in the highest. These salaries are too low to attract any large number of well-prepared men and women to the profession and to keep them there permanently.

continue to teach, or that capable ones will prepare for teaching, unless radical and sweeping changes are forthcoming in the salary scale. The cost of living has increased since 1913 as follows:

Food	85 per cent.
Clothing	106 per cent.
Drugs	103 per cent.
Fuel	53 per cent.
House furnishing goods	75 per cent.

Teachers' salaries have not increased in a proportionate ratio. Recent data collected by the Bureau of Education indicate that a liberal estimate for the country at large is 12 per cent. The inadequacy of compensation at the present time is indicated by comparisons of teachers' salaries with those paid in the industries. (See Tables3, 4, and 5.)

Legislative plans which provide for different grades of certificates should recognize the necessity of scaling the salaries according to the grades—placing a premium on special preparation. Such a plan is now followed in Indiana. This, of course, should be in addition to a higher minimum than now exists in the general salary scale.

TABLE 3.—*Salaries paid in the industries (taken from the Cleveland education survey made in 1915).*

	Cleveland.	Boston.	Chicago.	Minneapolis.	San Francisco.
Plumbers	$1,219	$1,320	$1,394	$1,044	$1,540
Bricklayers	1,192	1,244	1,293	1,197	1,390
Plasterers	1,132	1,201	1,326	1,201	1,309
Painters	1,003	957	1,232	921	1,081
Carpenters	992	1,026	1,139	1,030	964
Molders	945	980	942	927	1,126
Machinists	875	1,074	884	958	944
Teachers	791	1,001	1,034	937	1,124

TABLE 4.—*Salaries paid in the navy yards.*[1]

Trade.	Annual salary.
Blacksmiths	$2,396.16
Radio electricians	2,321.28
Masons, stone and brick	2,146.56
Carpenters	2,059.20
Welders	2,046.72
Plasterers and plumbers	1,996.80
Electricians	1,996.80
Canvas workers	1,896.96
Mechanics	1,722.24
Upholsterers	1,697.28
Chauffeurs	1,372.80
Gardeners	1,297.92
Common laborers	1,297.99 1,148.16
Sewers	1,148.16
Charwomen	873.60
Teachers[2]	**630.64**

[1] Data furnished by the United States Navy Department.

[2] Salary of teachers used for comparison is the average annual salary of *all teachers*—urban and rural—based oh daia gathered in 1918 by the Bureau of Education.

TABLE 5.—*Teachers' wages—Length of school term in months—Number of schoolhouses—Value of school property—All for 1915–16.*

States.	Average monthly salary of teachers.			Average length of school year, in months.	Average annual salary of all teachers.
	Men.	Women.	All.		
1	2	3	4	5	6
Continental United States	[1] $85.36	[1] $66.88	$70.21	8.02	$563.08
North Atlantic Division	107.96	75.90	80.15	9.09	728.56
North Central Division	84.82	64.97	68.14	8.36	569.65
South Atlantic Division	67.90	46.40	50.65	6.76	342.39
South Central Division	70.56	57.02	61.18	6.76	413.58
Western Division	117.13	88.59	95.05	8.39	797.47
North Atlantic Division:					
Maine	83.26	49.55	53.38	8.06	430.24
New Hampshire	116.39	51.05	56.74	8.58	486.80
Vermont	90.39	44.84	48.31	8.75	422.72
Massachusetts	.....	.....	88.03	9.09	800.18
Rhode Island	142.03	68.00	74.27	9.72	721.91
Connecticut	127.03	64.16	68.16	9.16	624.35
New York	.....	.....	101.70	9.51	967.20
New Jersey	.....	.....	95.34	* 9.15	872.34
Pennsylvania	68.63	50.55	54.42	8.64	470.18
North Central Division:					
Ohio	68.73	57.55	60.31	8.77	528.88
Indiana	.....	.....	74.88	7.75	580.32
Illinois	106.24	88.18	91.57	8.20	750.85
Michigan	.....	.....	70.40	* 8.60	605.47
Wisconsin	.....	.....	62.72	8.69	545.00
Minnesota	98.45	57.69	62.16	8.39	521.52
Iowa	90.69	57.40	60.90	8.50	517.65
Missouri	75.65	67.12	69.19	8.09	559.74
North Dakota (1915)	75.00	57.20	60.12	8.63	574.76
South Dakota	.....	.....	51.03	8.50	433.71
Nebraska	73.21	50.94	53.60	8.18	438.45
Kansas	83.89	66.76	69.91	8.19	—2.60
South Atlantic Division:					
Delaware	[2] 57.06	[2] 42.37	[2] 44.79	8.54	[2] 358.31
Maryland	.....	.....	63.04	8.90	561.06
District of Columbia	.....	.....	112.34	8.90	999.84
Virginia	66.07	45.06	48.50	7.05	341.90
West Virginia	.....	.....	51.69	6.75	348.93
North Carolina	.....	.....	42.57	6.21	264.36
South Carolina	70.54	49.89	54.14	5.43	293.99
Georgia	65.23	39.25	44.49	6.84	304.31
Florida	69.96	51.50	55.86	6.50	363.09
South Central Division:					
Kentucky	.....	.....	52.33	7.20	376.75
Tennessee	.....	.....	53.72	6.19	332.52
Alabama	.....	.....	50.96	6.75	344.00
Mississippi (1913)	.....	.....	37.99	6.15	233.64
Louisiana	84.37	57.75	63.10	6.75	425.95
Texas	97.28	78.87	84.82	6.75	572.52
Arkansas (1915)	.....	.....	49.62	6.75	334.94
Oklahoma	75.90	59.34	64.27	7.60	488.45
Western Division:					
Montana	98.18	76.98	79.46	8.84	702.43
Wyoming	85.91	61.91	65.41	7.65	500.39
Colorado	85.93	65.65	75.79	8.35	632.85
New Mexico	79.24	74.47	76.58	7.13	546.03
Arizona	119.35	90.65	96.30	8.00	770.40
Utah	109.90	80.69	88.95	8.15	724.92
Nevada	133.41	87.55	94.32	8.30	782.86
Idaho	112.38	79.31	95.85	* 7.75	742.81
Washington	.....	.....	99.26	8.73	866.58
Oregon	.....	.....	86.15	7.55	650.41
California	151.63	106.71	113.46	8.80	998.45
Outlying possessions:					
Alaska	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hawaii	95.89	94.84	95.03	9.20	874.25
Panama Canal Zone	69.61	101.87	93.94	8.60	807.87
Philippine Islands	.....	.....	[3] 13.26	.....	.....
Porto Rico	54.43	53.26	53.71	8.10	435.08

* Statistics of 1914–15.
[1] Estimated for States not reporting salaries of men and women separately.
[2] Exclusive of Wilmington.
[3] Filipino teachers only. Average monthly salary of 506 American teachers, $115.54.

SCHOOL TENURE.

It is also important that some recognition be given to tenure of office. This is especially necessary outside of cities. Schools taught by itinerant teachers must of necessity be inefficient. A salary bonus provided by State funds for tenure in the same school or district would add stability and dignity to teaching in rural communities. Indiana, Wisconsin, and Maryland have made a beginning in this direction by offering a bonus to those remaining more than one year in the same school.

TEACHERS' RETIREMENT PENSIONS.[1]

Teachers' pension systems are part of a recent movement for social insurance. Pensions of some kind have been in existence since the Roman Era. They were granted first as rewards for conspicuous bravery, or for military or naval service, or for distinguished contributions in the field of literature, art, or science. As the administrative departments of government developed, they also introduced pensions, and the practice spread to industry and commerce. Society has come to demand that an employee who has given the services of a lifetime to an employer be provided for in his old age. Social justice demands that this protection be more definite and dignified than that of common charity. The justification of pensions rests not only on their service in cases of distress, but also on the extent to which they may improve the conditions of service, increase the efficiency of workers, and promote social welfare generally. Any service becomes impaired as a result of the waste and demoralization caused by the retention of employees who are inefficient because of old age or disability. Their retention discourages younger and abler persons, and clogs the avenues of promotion.

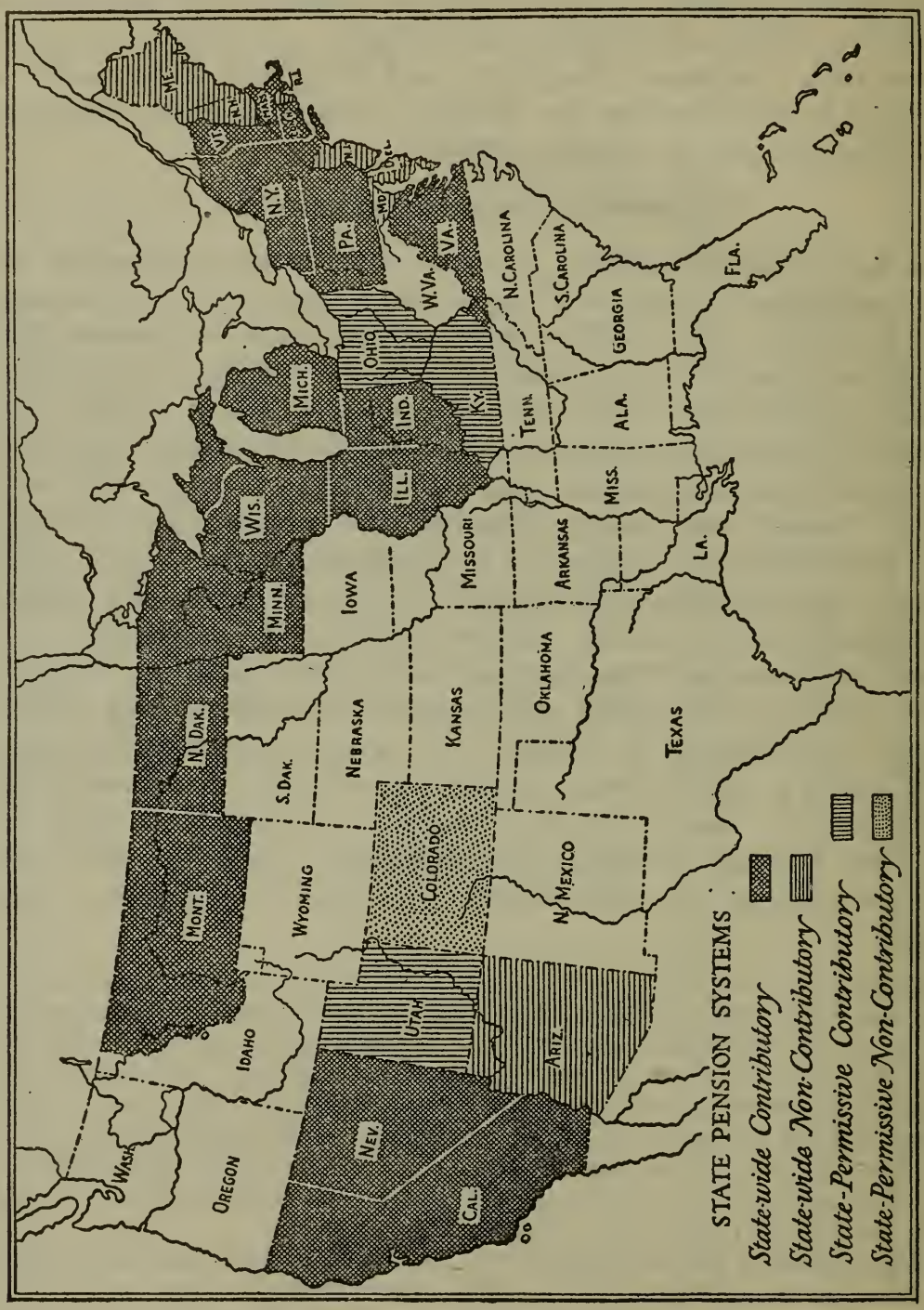
A study of 67 pension plans for teachers in the United States, representing 25 States and 64 counties and cities, shows that the movement for such pensions is recent, but wide spread and still extending. Generally the systems are administered by special boards, of which the teachers constitute a majority. Provision is, as a rule, made for retirement on the basis of service and disability, but usually only for teachers entering the service after the establishment of the system. Funds are in most cases provided by teachers' contributions and by public appropriation in approximately equal amounts, but the funds arranged for are frequently insufficient to pay the pensions that have been promised.

The first system of teacher pensions to be established in the United States is that of Chicago, which was inaugurated in 1893. Before 1900 seven other systems had been founded. Before 1910 there were 23 more. More than one-half of all systems (36), however, have come into existence since the beginning of 1910. There are now State-wide pension systems for teachers in 21 States, permissive systems in 4

[1] Information and graphic map taken from report of the National Education Association, Committee on Salaries, Pensions, and Tenure.

others, and the local system in 9 more. Thus 34 States are represented in the movement.

The existing pension systems are sometimes administered by the superintendent or commissioner of education, sometimes by the board of education, but in nearly four-fifths of the systems there is a special pension board or commission or committee.



These boards have from 3 to 11 members. Two-thirds of them have 5 or 7. Forty-nine out of 51 boards reporting include representatives of the teachers, who are generally elected by the teachers themselves.

In nine-tenths of the systems membership is compulsory for new teachers. In all the systems retirement is on the basis of from 20 to 40 years of service, most frequently 30 years. About one-half of the systems make provision also for retirement

on the basis of age, at from 50 to 75 years—most frequently 60 years for both men and women. Nearly six-sevenths of the systems have provisions for disability—usually a proportion of the full pension equal to the proportion of the full years of service completed before retirement.

Teachers contribute to the fund in about six-sevenths of the systems, most frequently 1 or 2 per cent of their salaries. In about six-sevenths of the systems public funds are supplied also from individual sources, school or special taxes, deductions from teachers' pay, or from direct appropriations. The public contribution is not related to that of the teachers in as many systems as would be expected. Where it is so related it most frequently equals the contribution of the teachers.

Return of the teachers' contributions in case of resignation is provided for in about one-half of the systems, the refund being most frequently one-half of the contribution without interest. Return in case of dismissal is provided in about one-half the systems, this refund nearly always being all of the contribution without interest. Return in case of death is provided in about one-third of the systems.

The financial experience of these systems is as yet brief. The representative salary of the teachers in the 63 systems reported is $730 a year. The representative pension is $500 a year. The representative total contribution on the part of the teachers is $510, a frequent requirement being a sum equal to the first year's annuity. The prevailing tendency is toward the establishment of State, rather than local, systems. Certainly the State has advantages unapprochable by any local or private establishment.

The provisions governing the different systems are varied. They show uniformity only as State wide or permissive, and contributory or noncontributory. Unfortunately, many of the existing systems have been organized without serious attemps to insure security for the future by the employment of any sound and scientific basis. The result has been insolvency at the period when help is most needed by those who have depended upon the system. In order that funds may be provided and administered in the most economical way, with justice to the beneficiaries and fairness to the public, and in order to promote the efficiency of the educational system, careful study should be given to the fundamental principles involved in successful pension systems. These have been worked out scientifically and authoritatively by actuarial experts.

Certain recommendations concerning the necessary provisions of pension systems are given below. They are summarized from a report of the committee on salaries, pensions, and tenure of the National Education Association. They are embodied in a suggested system for the State of Vermont, but can easily be adjusted to conditions in any other State.

THE RETIREMENT BOARD.

The pension system is administered by a board. A small one is most effective to secure centralized responsibility and administrative efficiency. The State and teachers are both represented; the former by the executive officers who have charge of funds and insurance, the latter by elected representatives with terms of at least three years.

Tenure of service should overlap, to give continuity of policy and knowledge of details on the part of a majority of members. The functions of the board are to frame by-laws and regulations to carry out the provisions of the act and to supervise, subject to expert advice, the maintenance of the funds. The services of a consulting actuary should be retained in large systems, or an actuarial investigation every three years provided for in small ones.

MEMBERSHIP.

Membership should be compulsory for all new teachers, optional for those already in the service within a stated period of time, probably one year. This is necessary in order that the fundamental benefits on which the necessity for a pension is based may be accomplished. It is no hardship to any, because those entering the service do so knowing the conditions of appointment.

RETIREMENT PLAN.

Retirement of teachers should be provided for on the combined basis of age and service. When provided on the basis of service alone, there is danger of instability because of over expensiveness. The principle is also opposed to the interests of society, since teachers may retire at the time of their greatest efficiency. Retirement on the basis of age alone is inequitable, since the employer's contributions to the fund are made in recognition of service rendered. Retirement ages recommended are 60 or 65 for voluntary, and 70 for compulsory retirement. The amount of service should be from 20 to 30 years.

RETIREMENT ALLOWANCE.

The amount of the retirement allowance for future teachers and those below the age of 45 who are in service at the time of the introduction of the pension plan will be determined by the amount contributed annually by and on behalf of such teachers; by the rate of interest earned or guaranteed; and by the rates of mortality. The retirement allowance will be the annual sum that can be purchased by the accumulations standing to a teacher's credit at the time of retirement. These sums can be predicted with scientific accuracy by the actuaries, so that teachers may know how much to expect from given contributions. Complications arising from systems which base the retirement allowance on the salary received at the time of retirement, or on the average salary for a few years preceding retirement, or by the payment of a flat rate, or by calculating on the basis of service, should be avoided. To enable teachers to make such arrangements as suit their circumstances, the plan gives the opportunity of increasing their contributions as their salaries increase. They have the selection of one of three options at the time of their retirement: (1) Annuity covering the life of the annuitant; (2) annuity, guaranteeing also the return of contributions remaining after death; (3) annuity for life, followed by life pension for the widow.

Disability allowance.—The beneficiary may also retire on a basis of disability, after a certain minimum number of years of service, the annuity being based on the sums accumulated with the addition of annual payments from the State, sufficient to make the total annual pension one-half the average annual salary during active service.

CONTRIBUTIONS.

The pension fund is made up by the contribution of equal amounts from the teachers and the State, on the reserve plan. The teacher pays a stated amount, say 5 per cent of her salary; the State contributes the same, and both sums are placed at interest and to the credit of the particular teacher's fund. At retirement, the amount of the annuity is equal to about one-half the average annual salary of the annuitant, and the percentage of salary collected must be large enough to insure this as a minimum. For teachers who have been in active service for some years before the introduction of the pension plan, a different arrangement is necessary. They should contribute annually the same percentage of their salaries as other teachers in service; the State should pay annually on their account, in addition to the ordinary duplication of the teachers' contributions, such sums as, with the other accumulations, will provide an annuity on the same basis as that provided for the other teachers, namely, about one-half the average annual salary. The additional sums furnished by the State for this purpose decreases rapidly, and ultimately disappear entirely.

ACCUMULATIONS.

It is desirable to follow the principle observed in savings and insurance systems, that contributions of both teachers and the State be kept in individual accounts, credited to each teacher up to the time of retirement. It is advisable for the State to guarantee interest at 4 per cent; any sums earned above this may be placed in a reserve fund and employed to reduce appropriations in any one year.

Return of contributions.—A scientifically planned system will return not only the teacher's contributions, but after a definite period of service probably that necessary to qualify for permanent appointment, those placed to his credit by the State. The total return may be the amount to his credit with interest at 3½ instead of 4 per cent; the difference in the rate for withdrawal and the rate for retirement being considered as some return for the protection offered. It may be used to pay for the cost of administration.

Systems should be inaugurated with the advice and help of actuaries, and their soundness maintained by periodical investigations. Some provision should be made for changes in existing rules from time to time, as desirable, to provide for future contingencies. Changes in existing contracts can be made only with the consent of those concerned.

XI.—SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS.

The United States Commissioner of Education places the following estimate upon the importance of school textbooks:

In the elementary and secondary schools of the United States textbooks play a more important part than in similar schools of most other countries. In almost all subjects teachers and pupils depend on textbooks both for facts and for order of presentation. Few teachers correct errors in statements of facts; fewer still attempt to improve or are able to improve faulty arrangement of material or illogical or unpedagogical development of subjects treated. Lessons are assigned, learned, and recited in the order given in the books. The adoption of textbooks for use in any school or system of schools, therefore, determines in large degree the courses of study. Of the three factors in every school—building and equipment, teachers, and textbooks—it can hardly be said that textbooks constitute the factor of least importance. Frequently the textbook is the teacher, while the man or woman called the teacher is only a kind of taskmaster or policeman driving the children through the pages of the textbook. This especially is true of a large number of one-room country schools in which the teachers "hear the lessons" of from 25 to 35 classes a day, giving from 5 to 10 or 15 minutes to each lesson. It is therefore a matter of great importance that the best possible textbooks on all subjects of school study be put into the hands of teachers and children, and the methods by which this is attempted in the several States, cities, and individual schools must have interest for all school officers.

The Nation has no uniform system for the publication and adoption of school textbooks.

Two States, California and Kansas, print their own textbooks. Twenty-five States have State-wide, uniform system of adoption; five have county adoption; the rest resort to local adoptions by the districts, towns, or townships.

Eleven of the 25 States having State-wide adoptions permit the State boards of education to make the selection of textbooks; the

remaining 14 have special textbook commissions appointed by the governor.

The tendency to give the State board of education power to select textbooks seems to be gaining in favor.

The boards or commissions in 14 States require all competing book companies to submit samples of textbooks to the State superintendent of public instruction with cost of each and to give suitable bonds for the fulfillment of any contract awarded them. They must comply with all rules governing the distribution and sale of books, either from specially selected depositories or direct from the State superintendent's office, or from the office of the publishers upon orders approved by the State department of public instruction.

Exchange of old books is often provided at a fixed sum. Some States allow dealers the privilege of selling the adopted books at a price not over 10 or 15 per cent above the actual cost of production.

QUESTION OF STATE UNIFORMITY OF TEXTBOOKS.

State uniformity has proved cheaper than separate adoptions by the several districts. State contracts frequently provide that adopted textbooks shall not be sold elsewhere at a lower price.

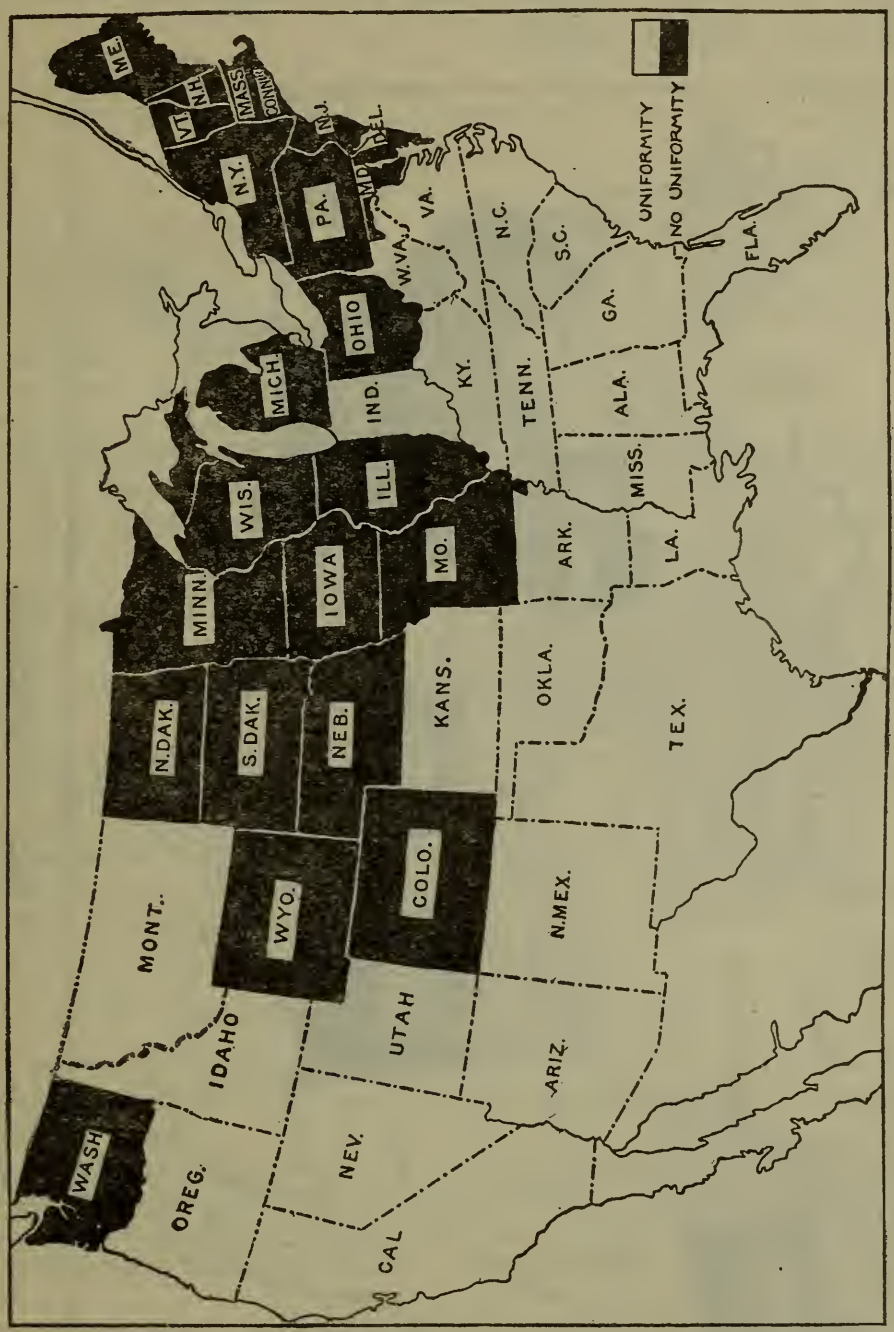
Textbook publishers can generally afford to make lower prices when they have the contract for an entire State. Local dealers, because of high freight rates, etc., frequently charge higher prices than they would under a fixed contract price.

TABLE 6.—*States grouped according to the composition of the State boards of education and State textbooks commissions.*[1]

State board of education composed of—		State textbook commission consists of—		
Nonpolitical appointments and ex-officio education officers.	Political officers serving ex-officio.	State board of education.	State board of education and additional appointed members.	Specially appointed board.
Arizona.	Arkansas.	Arizona.		Alabama.[2]
California.		California.		Arkansas.
Delaware.	Florida.	Delaware.		Florida.
Georgia.		Georgia.		
Idaho.		Idaho.		
Indiana.		Indiana.		
Kansas.				Kansas.
Louisiana.	Kentucky.	Louisiana.		Kentucky.
	Mississippi.			Mississippi.
Montana.				Montana.
New Mexico.		New Mexico.		
Nevada.			Nevada.	
Oklahoma.	North Carolina.	Oklahoma.	North Carolina.	
South Carolina.	Oregon.	South Carolina.		Oregon.
Tennessee.	Texas.		Tennessee.	Texas.
Utah.				Utah.
Virginia.		Virginia.		
West Virginia.				West Virginia.

[1] Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 36.
[2] No State board of education.

Investigations upon the part of the Bureau of Education have shown that many educators advocate county or township adoptions



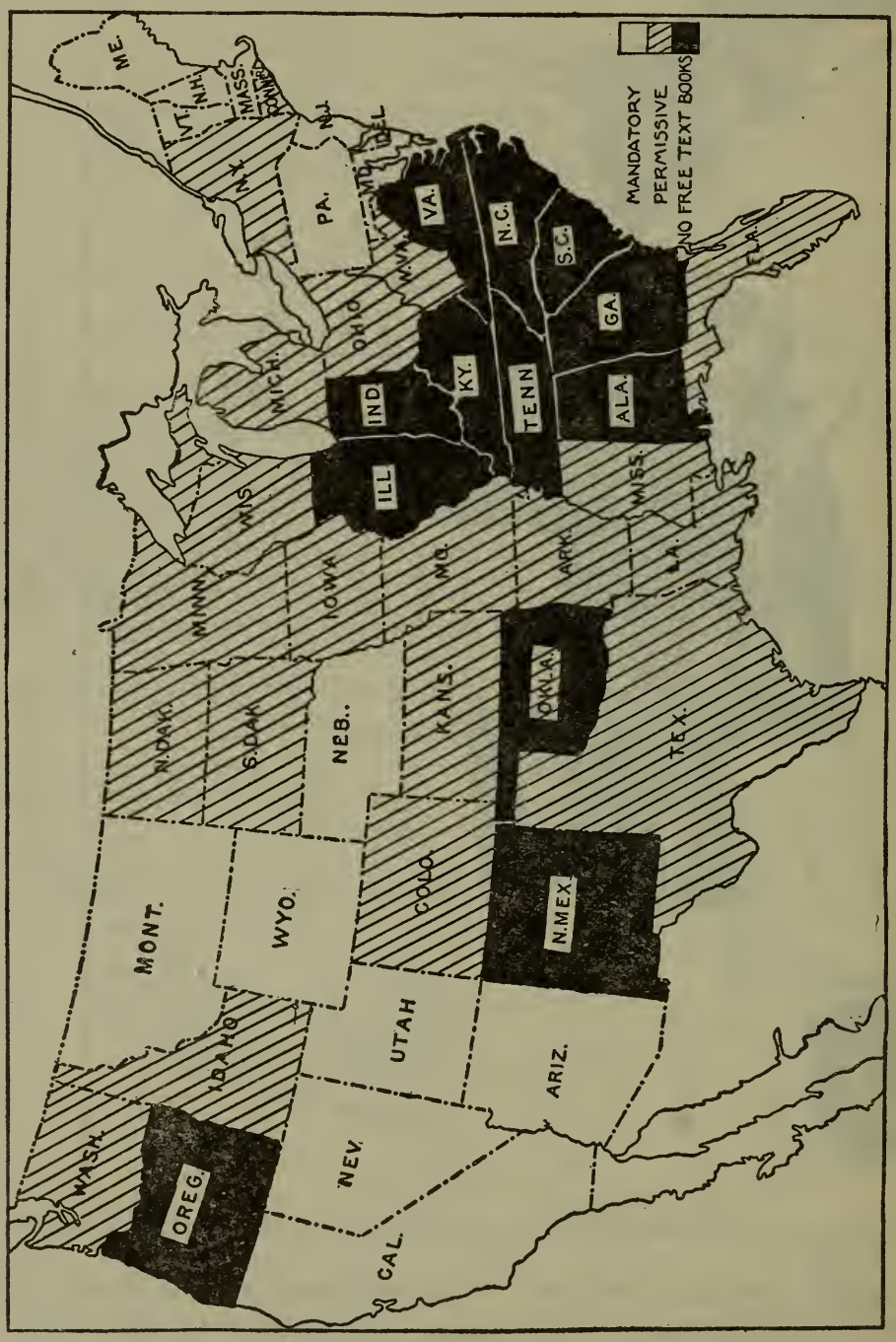
TEXTBOOKS: STATE UNIFORMITY.

as a happy medium between State uniformity and local district adoption. (See Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 36.)

HISTORY OF FREE TEXTBOOKS.

As early as 1818 Philadelphia provided free textbooks for the children attending its public schools. Massachusetts, in 1884, passed the first State-wide mandatory free textbook law. Free textbooks in all public elementary schools are mandatory in 17 States, 13

of these are mandatory in public secondary schools as well. In 20 other States local school districts in the city, township, or county may supply free books. In practically all of the States books are furnished free to indigent children.



FREE TEXTBOOKS.

'It is generally agreed that the logical plan for giving every boy and girl in the United States an equal opportunity is for the State to furnish the textbooks free of charge. It is generally recognized that where compulsory educational laws are enacted and enforced, free textbooks should be provided for the children who are brought into school under the provisions of this law.

Under the general system of education in the United States the three principal actors are the school plant, the teacher, and the textbook.[1] The textbook is undoubtedly emphasized much more than it should be, but it will hold its position of importance at least as long as the present large proportion of untrained teachers are employed in the public school systems. The untrained and the partially trained teachers must "lean" on the textbook; they must rely upon it both for subject matter and for method of teaching. *It is important, therefore, that good books, selected by competent authority, be in the hands of all children, rich and poor alike. In no other way can this requirement be met except through free books.*

The adoption of free textbooks does not add greatly to the cost of the public school system, hence the rate of taxation is not materially increased.

From investigations made by the Bureau of Education the total annual sale of textbooks for each child enrolled in the public schools is approximately 78.3 cents. The total expenditure per child is perhaps 10 or 15 cents more than this amount which would include commissions, local dealers' profit, etc.

The cost of textbooks will amount to a trifle more than 2 per cent of the total cost of maintenance, support, and equipment.

There are many children too poor to pay for books and yet too proud to ask charity, and many others to whom the cost is such an important item that school authorities hesitate to change the books in use even when much better results might be obtained by a change.

The principal arguments advanced in favor of free textbooks are:[1]

1. Poor children whose parents are unable to purchase books, or are unable to do so without great sacrifice may attend school as well equipped in this respect as the richer children.
2. Uniformity of textbooks in each school administrative district is secured.
3. Textbooks may be changed with little inconveniences whenever changes are desirable.
4. Additional textbooks and supplementary books may be supplied.
5. Schoolwork is not delayed at the beginning of the school year while parents obtain books for their children.

The principal arguments advanced against free textbooks and in favor of the pupils purchasing their own books are:

1. Parents and pupils are made to realize that they can not become wholly dependent on the State, but must continue to assume some of the responsibilities of education.
2. On account of the cost, increased school taxes would be necessary or the amount available for salaries and other expenses would be decreased.
3. Children should not be required to use books soiled by other children, as they are objectionable to the majority of children and parents both for esthetic and sanitary reasons.
4. By purchasing textbooks home libraries may be built up.
5. Books furnished free are not cared for as are those owned by the pupils. On the other hand, because the free textbooks are public property intrusted to the pupil, to be paid for if damaged or lost, and frequently inspected by the teachers, it is claimed that they are as well or better cared for. The care the books receive depends entirely upon the way in which the system is managed.

The consensus of opinion among teachers, superintendents and school authorities wherever free books have been furnished to children is strongly in favor of the system. The reports are practically unanimous that the plan is successful. An inquiry was

[1] Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 36.

made a few years ago among cities in the United States furnishing free textbooks. This inquiry asked for information as to whether the plan was generally satisfactory; 74 cities reported yes, 6, partially, and no cities reported no.

ADVISABILITY OF STATE-WIDE ADOPTIONS AND USE OF LIBERAL SUPPLEMENTARY LISTS.

The arguments given above for and against the advisability of free textbooks and State uniformity all bear directly upon the question of State-wide adoptions. One of the main objections urged against State-wide adoptions is that the State must adopt a certain book for a definite period, three, four, to eight years, and that that book must remain the permanent textbook for that period. This is sometimes modified by a provision for revision of the textbook during this time or for the adoption of a revised edition during the term of the contract. Another objection, and possibly the most serious one, is that the books adopted in a State of diversified interests are not adaptable to the different sections of the State. This objection may be met by the use of a liberal supplementary list which allows the local authorities to choose the books best adapted to their locality.

Over one-half of the States that now have uniform textbooks in the public schools provide a liberal supplementary list.

QUESTION OF ADVISABILITY OF PUBLICATION OF TEXTBOOKS BY THE STATE.

Reports from the two States, California and Kansas, that have adopted the plan of publication of textbooks by the State are as follows:[1]

In California the legislation permitting the publication by the State of textbooks was passed in 1883, and it continued practically without change for 20 years. It is characterized by the author of the history of the State printing of textbooks in California as "a time of contention, strife and abuse, very disquieting to those who are responsible for the enterprise." The close of this period found the State publishing 14 textbooks, and during this period four million books were made and sold to the people for a million and a half dollars. It was then determined that although the books must be manufactured at the State printing office, copyrights or plates could be leased or purchased from outside sources.

The cost for the first two and one-half years, including the original stocking up of the schools, was roughly half a million dollars. There are about 400,000 children in the schools, so the total cost per child per year is approximately 50 cents. This includes the expense of distribution, but does not include such additional or supplementary books as are purchased by the local schools. The law forbids requiring pupils to buy any books whatever.

However, there are two sides to the matter. As a matter of cold fact, the books in the past cost quite as much under local authorship as they have since. It is possible that we could do it better now, however. The local authors have to be paid in one way or another; and the editorial work, the mechanical work of preparing the books or publication, add to the cost. The royalty represents the author's compensation, the

[1] Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1915, No. 36.

expense of preparing the plates, the cost of exploiting the book into a well known and popular one that California would accept, the loss of unsuccessful books, and the publisher's percentage of profit.

In Kansas the following report from the State superintendent will explain the conditions under which the law operates in that State.

Under this provision the State school-book commission has just completed the adoption or approval of a complete list of high-school textbooks for the five-year period beginning May 1, 1915. The prices at which these books are to be furnished to dealers by the various publishers are uniformly 75 per cent of the publishers' list price f. o. b. Chicago, with the privilege on the part of the State of immediate publication of the geometry from plates furnished by its publisher at a royalty of 28 per cent on the list price, and a similar privilege as to the composition at the end of three years. It is, therefore, the plan of the State to reprint at once geometries for the use of pupils beginning next September.

In addition to those previously mentioned as having already been published, the commission is planning to publish as rapidly as possible a complete series of common-school texts, existing adoptions upon all which expire within the next two years.

Owing to the limited appropriation of $100,000 available for publication purposes, however, it will probably be impossible to provide for the printing of more than half the list within that time.

It is doubtful if many States will consider seriously the question of publishing their own textbooks. In the Massachusetts Legislature of 1915 the State board of education was instructed to make a study of textbook publication by the State and report back in 1916 on the advisability of its adoption. In the 1915 sessions of the State legislature in five States bills were introduced providing for the State printing of books, but none were passed.

SOME POINTS FOR CONSIDERATION IN FRAMING LAWS GOVERNING TEXTBOOKS.

1. Free textbooks give greater opportunity to all classes of pupils, cost less than when purchased by the individual, and aid the teachers in meeting the requirements of the course of study.
2. Uniform State textbook laws should make provision for a liberal supplemental list of books in reading, history, literature, geography, etc.
3. The printing and publication of school textbooks by the State is a doubtful experiment under present conditions.
4. The adoption of State textbooks by the State board of education seems to give general satisfaction.
5. The time limit of adoption should not be over six years and provision may be made for changing certain textbooks every four or five years.

	Law mandatory for all State schools.		Law permissive, applicable to schools of—				
	Elementary.	Secondary.	Entire State.	Certain counties.	City or township.	Local school district.	Union free.
Alabama							
Arizona	X	X					
Arkansas			X				
California [1]	X						
Colorado					X	X	
Connecticut					X		
Delaware [2]	X	X					
District of Columbia	X	X					
Florida [3]				X			
Georgia							
Idaho				X			
Illinois							
Indiana							
Iowa				X		X	
Kansas [4]			X				
Kentucky							
Louisiana [5]	X						
Maine	X	X					
Maryland	X	X					
Massachusetts	X	X					
Michigan						X	
Minnesota						X	
Mississippi						X	
Missouri				X			
Montana	X	X					
Nebraska	X	X					
Nevada	X	X					
New Hampshire	X	X					
New Jersey	X	X					
New Mexico							
New York					X		X
North Carolina							
North Dakota						X	
Ohio					X		
Oklahoma							
Oregon							
Pennsylvania	X	X					
Rhode Island	X	X					
South Carolina							
South Dakota				X			
Tennessee							
Texas [6]			X				
Utah	X						
Vermont	X						
Virginia			X				
Washington						X	
West Virginia [7]				X			
Wisconsin				X	X		
Wyoming	X	X					
United States							

[1] Permissive in secondary schools.
[2] Except Wilmington City.
[3] Two counties.
[4] Supplementary readers free.
[5] For New Orleans only.
[6] Districts having special tax.
[7] Magisterial districts.

TABLE 8.—*Uniform textbooks.*

Laws applicable to—

	State.	County.	Township and district.
Alabama	×		
Arizona	×		
Arkansas	×		
California	×		
Colorado			×
Connecticut			×
Delaware	×		
District of Columbia	×		
Florida	×		
Georgia	×		
Idaho	×		
Illinois			×
Indiana	×		
Iowa			×
Kansas	×		
Kentucky	×		
Louisiana	×		
Maine			×
Maryland		×	
Massachusetts			×
Michigan			×
Minnesota			×
Mississippi	×		
Missouri		×	
Montana	×		
Nebraska			×
Nevada	×		
New Hampshire			×
New Jersey			×
New Mexico	×		
New York			×
North Carolina	×		
North Dakota			×
Ohio			×
Oklahoma	×		
Oregon	×		
Pennsylvania			×
Rhode Island			×
South Carolina	×		
South Dakota		×	
Tennessee	×		
Texas	×		
Utah	×		
Vermont			×
Virginia	×		
Washington		×	
West Virginia	×		
Wisconsin		×	
Wyoming			×
United States			

Textbook laws providing for State adoptions should include the following features:

(1) All cities having a population of 25,000 or over should be exempt from the use of books adopted for the State as a whole and be permitted to adopt their own textbooks.

(2) There should be a textbook committee of professional educators, carefully selected by and responsible to the State board of education. This committee should be large enough to include persons having special knowledge of the content and method of teaching of all the more important subjects of the elementary and high-school curriculum. It should not include any member of the board of education. Its members should be paid sufficient salaries

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to enable them to give all the time necessary to the duties of their office.

(3) Since in most of the rural schools the textbook is followed closely, almost slavishly, the merits of the books and their fitness for use in the State should be considered by the textbook committee in making adoptions, and the recommendations of this committee should be final. Small differences in the prices of books are not sufficient to make any appreciable difference in the cost of the education of the children of the State, and should not be considered in the adoption of books.

(4) All adoptions should be for a period of five years, and it should not be lawful to change more than one-third of the total list of books in any one year.

(5) All adoptions should be made in executive session of the textbook committee and after a year's study and trial of all the more important books of the titles to be adopted.

(6) All books in series should be so changed that children progressing normally through the schools may finish any subject without change of series. For example, when a new series of readers is adopted, the change of First Readers should be made one year, the change of Second Readers the next year, and so on.

(7) New books to be used in any year should be adopted not less than four months before the time of the opening of schools so that there may be ample time for their manufacture and purchase and distribution.

(8) The law should include all necessary guaranties against political and financial influence in the adoption of books.

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